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The Influence of Commuting to School on the Behaviour of Youth and the Progress of Their Studies

Summary of a study by Andrzej Szyszko-Bohusz published by the Polish Academy of Sciences, Cracow, No. 15, 1969.

The work consists of seven chapters. In the introductory chapter the author explains the importance of the commuting of youth to schools on the background of the actual situation in the Polish educational system, during the reformatory period of primary schools composed of eight forms. The negative influence of the commuting of youth upon their behaviour, health and educational progress is, in the author's opinion, a phenomenon of social importance, the more so that its quantitative range is wide. As results from the statistical data published by the GUS (Main Statistical Office) in the years 1965/66 — 462, 636 pupils, i.e. 56.3 per cent of the total number of non-resident pupils commuted daily or came on foot to school. In reality the numerical range of this phenomenon is still wider, as the GUS statistics do not comprise the youngsters that come to school by means of urban communications. The author proposes therefore an alteration of the classification of commuting youth, in force at present in Poland, according to the kind of locomotion used by them (railway or bus). This classification, more rational and useful, ought to be based on the amount of time wasted for the arrival at school and the return home. That kind of change demands suitable terminological determinations. Having accomplished a critical analysis of the literature concerned with this subject, the author presented a set of his own problems concerning investigation. In his opinion, their originality can be explained in the following points:

1. An attempt to show the problem of the commuting of youth to school in all its complexity and multiformity was carried out for the first time in pedagogical literature.

2. Statistical methods were applied in a wide scope. The method of factor analysis was used for determining the degree of influence of particular factors upon the grades of the pupils at school.

3. A series of methodological possibilities and directions of investigation concerning the analysed phenomenon were indicated. New investigational techniques (intellectual and physiological tests, detailed medical examination) should be used.

4. Indispensable alterations in relation to the accuracy of basic terminological concepts, concerning the analysed phenomenon, were carried out.

5. A plan for the classification of commuting youth according to the criterion of time wasted for commutation, was presented.

A separate chapter, Chap. II, was dedicated to a detailed description concerning the methods of investigation. Not only inquiries, interviews, observations, analyses of documentation and cartographic methods were used, but also experimental methods, as for instance intellectual tests and physiological methods. The material thus obtained was elaborated statistically. Investigation carried out in the years 1963-64 concerned 5 secondary schools in Kraków (3 technical schools and 2 basic professional schools) with 3813 pupils of which 562 were non-resident.

The author analyses in Chapter III the causes that provoked the investigated phenomenon and its dynamic development and also the life conditions and those of the milieu of non-resident pupils.

Chapters IV, V and VI form the most extensive and most important part of the work. In them, the problem of the influence of commuting upon the health, behaviour and educational progress of pupils is considered. Detection of the kind, the intensiveness and social results of this influence, manifested in phenomena of an increased withdrawal from school, in the quality of school grades, in an antisocial moral attitude and also in health disorders were especially strongly emphasized. An analysis of the obtained material ascertained the following:

1. Non-resident youths are not able to keep up with a constant school time-table. 30.4 per cent

of those investigated wasted 1-3 hours for their arrival and return, and 69.6 per cent up to 5 hours, and more. The situation of pupils of fundamental professional schools was the most difficult, as 85 per cent of them wasted 3.5 h. and even more than 5 hours on the way. A general regularity was discovered on the basis of a statistical analysis, demonstrating that the youngsters commuting to schools made on the average worse educational progress, but that their average estimate of conduct was better than that of the local pupils. The phenomena of withdrawal from school appeared in a wider range among the commuting pupils, the greatest losses concerning those of fundamental professional schools, attending evening classes, and pupils of the top forms. It was also stated that the educational progress of pupils from distant town quarters was frequently worse than the progress accomplished by pupils commuting from beyond the administrative range of the town. The considerable waste of time restricted the possibility of non-resident pupils taking part in social, cultural and sporting activities.

2. The daily and long-standing residing of pupils in the midst of great human agglomerations, in railway-stations, waiting-rooms, coffee-rooms and in the streets provoke an increase of pedagogical difficulties in a certain number of them. These difficulties are intensified by an insufficient control of youth on the part of the family and of the school. This was demonstrated by the previous studies of W. Klimczak and I. Mach.

3. Frequent arrivals behind schedule and absence during occupations at school caused by irregularities in the means of transport, especially during the winter season, and also neglect of their school duty by less conscientious pupils.

4. Fatigue caused by the transit and an insufficient amount of sleep are the cause that the attention of pupils is lowered at school and renders difficult the achievement of their homework. Investigation demonstrated that over 50 per cent of commuting youth sleep 6-8 hours, and 4.8 per cent less than 6 hours, one hour shorter than the average period of sleep of resident youth.

5. Exposure to constant climatic changes causes more frequent illnesses mostly of the respiratory tracts of the commuting pupils.

In the VIIth and last chapter, a summing-up of the totality of investigations was carried out and some expedients for preventing the negative properties of the analysed phenomenon were indicated. The following questions are some of the most important ones:

a) the establishing of a synonymous terminology concerning the analysed phenomenon, its quantitative dimensions and qualitative properties throughout the whole country;

b) an increased care extended over all the commuting pupils and especially over those exposed to the greatest difficulties (a distant or particularly fatiguing journey).

For increasing an effective aid for pupils commuting to schools endeavours should be undertaken to create a co-ordinated co-operation of parents and school, of social institutions and political and juvenile organisations.

The complexity of the analysed phenomenon requires, in the author's opinion, further collective investigation in which not only pedagogues, but also psychologists, sociologists, geographers, physiologists and physicians should participate. The amplitude of the problem did not allow any conclusive decisions to be made in the present work concerning all the questions and hypotheses — some of them are merely indicated, as for instance the influence of commuting on the personality of youth, as a result of their specific manner of living. It must still be verified whether commuting encourages a tendency to vagrancy. Another important problem demanding further investigation is the sociological characteristic of groups composed of non-resident commuting pupils.

At the end of the work a plan for the classification of commuting youth after the criterion of the time wasted for their arrival to school is introduced.

Social Mobility and Education in the Federal Republic of Germany

Ingeborg Assmann

1. **Introduction**
The small number of Abitur successes achieved by working-class children (national age for 1965 was 5.2%) and the unfavorable comparison of children attending high schools in other countries — Germany, 15.3%; France, 30.8%; USA, 71% — caused much concern in the Federal Republic.

In reviewing the question, why does Germany have such a low percentage of abitur graduates, many reasons were given; the psychologically unfavorable early separation (after the 4th grade); the parents' unwillingness to risk the failure of their children; the rigid requirements in the grammar school; the persuasive economic situation on the labor market; the many misconceptions about the value of education. Sociologists, like Ralf Dahrendorf, accused the educational authorities of a 'waste of our educational resources.' Terms like 'the untapped pools of ability' or 'untapped talent reserves' were coined. Empirical research was done like never before to shed light on these questions whether the social class was an obstructive factor against education, an accusation that was proclaimed by many educationally-minded people for many years but was always denied by state authorities and the government.

A few years ago, the discovery by Friedrich Edding of the connections between economic growth and investment in education, for instance, aroused consternation among experts and surprise among politicians. Today the same people are, if one may use such an image, the bloodhounds of the ministries of education. The hunt for the 'brains' has started.

Educational research experts in Germany at the moment are endeavoring, by means of a variety of methods and from a variety of starting points, to investigate the phenomenon of the relationship between social class and intelligence, in order to discover where to get hold of the intellectual and industrial leaders of tomorrow, without whom a modern state cannot exist.

In short, the discussion about the 'untapped talent reserve' is fully under way. (1966)

2. **Result of Educational Research**
In regard to this question, research was done in the state of Baden-Württemberg. In adjacent rural areas in Baden-Württemberg the percentage of pupils at secondary schools was particularly low. In these 'backward' regions, which are especially lacking in adequate transport facilities, intelligence tests have been conducted for the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs by the psychologist Dr Aurin of the State Institute of Education at Stuttgart, together with a team of psychologists and students from the teachers' training colleges. All children in their fourth and fifth years at elementary school were examined to see if they had the aptitude for a secondary school education. The most important results of the tests reveal that about 40% of the children possessed the necessary ability to attend secondary school (18% grammar school and 22% intermediate school).

In 1964 only 13% of the elementary student population had transferred to secondary schools. The study further gave proof to the hypothesis of the so-called untapped talent reserve in rural areas. In Stuttgart 70% of the children transferred to secondary schools after their fourth year at elementary schools, the percentage in remote rural areas only amounted to 20%.[1]

Dr. Aurin came to the conclusion that the fear of failure was an important deterrent factor that held the industrial and agricultural workers back from sending their children for secondary education. "What holds them back is the fear that their children may turn out to be failures at this 'difficult' school, thus, perhaps disgracing them in the eyes of the village."[2]

Wolfgang Albrecht found in his research in the state of Baden-Württemberg that only 40% of the children that entered the high school reached the Abitur. The bulk of the dropouts came from low-class families, the ones who

stayed in school were children of upper- and middle-class parents. He concluded: 'The education of the children is in direct relation to the education of the parents.'[3] In number 5 of his findings he stated: "Parents are obstacles to secondary education because of old fashioned beliefs. They think, university study is only for the 'upper-class'."[4] Theodor Bojus in similar research found proof that there is 'a clear disadvantage of children in rural areas as compared to urban areas."[5] In 16 out of 64 communities insufficient provisions were made to give the children the possibility to attend high schools. (The distance to school was too far for a ten-year-old child.)

Robert Geipel made a pilot study on the effects of geographical structure on education in the state of Hessen. For the first time a state in the Federal Republic has been surveyed from the point of the effects of geographical structure on education. Besides the fact that the teacher training college, of which Geipel is a professor, was located in Hessen, he himself justified the choice of Hessen for this study 'because it possesses active and passive areas, industrial conurbations as well as remote rural areas, which adjoin one another in conveniently sized units. They thus offer model instances of all the problems which in other states of the Federal Republic are spread over far wider regions and therefore produce a more one-sided effect for the average of the state as a whole."[6]

What Was Investigated? A survey was made of the proportions of pupils obtaining their 'Abitur' (certificate of maturity) in the different local communities of Hesse. That does not sound particularly sensational, but in fact it is; for thanks to this survey the catchword 'drop in educational standards' has finally been deprived of its force, after haunting Germany's educational policy for some time and causing considerable annoyance. This was possible because previously the figures available for the various spheres of education were based only on averages for whole states or at best county districts. These average figures had caused people to have the impression that the states could be arranged in order and given good and bad marks for their efforts in the field of education. It was natural that politicians should play off states with Christian Democrat governments against states with Social Democrat governments. In lists of this kind Hesse is almost at the top of the class. After Berlin it has the highest percentage of pupils obtaining their Abitur in the whole of the Federal Republic; last year the figure was 10% of the total population in the same age-group. But it is precisely this model state that has received the following testimonial, for instance, from Professor Geipel: in the last 10 years more than a third of all the local communities in Hesse have failed to produce a single pupil with the Abitur. In Hessen, 834 local communities out of 2,700 never produced a pupil with Abitur success. This fact probably shocked those responsible for educational policy in the Hesse Ministry of Education just as much as it shocked the interviewer. Only when the communities were regarded as a whole did these subsidiary answers produce the plastic image which will be taken as a basis for school planning in Hesse. Thus an indication is given of the manifold nature of the problem of educational planning. In order to make it comprehensible, we must describe the method employed in the investigation.

The first method of assessment revealed the range of the individual grammar schools. The areas from which their pupils came became recognizable by means of quantitative absolute statistics. Maps revealed the spheres of influence of the grammar school localities, as well as areas where education was in a backward state.

The second process of tabulating the information made the basis of inquiry the local community where the 53,000 pupils lived, instead of where their school was situated; thus the relative percentage of pupils with the Abitur was calculated per local community.

In order to avoid districts being wrongly evaluated in regard to their level of education, a further method of assessment was employed, whereby the percentage of the year-groups obtaining their Abitur between 1960 and 1964 was compared to the same age-groups (15-20-year-olds) revealed by the 1961 census. This control calculation resulted in the educational 'no-man's-land,' as Professor Geipel termed it, increasing

by a further 293 communities to a total of 1,127, which is 42% of all the communities in the state of Hesse.

The educational geographer pursued the causes for the lack of Abitur successes. Even a person who is not accustomed to 'thinking in terms of areas' can recognize the connection between lack of interest in education on the one hand and rail distances on the other. In the words of Professor Geipel, 'education is also a question of distances'[7] His research also gave proof to the hitherto denied point: 'The proportion of pupils who obtain the Abitur is closely connected with the social status of the population.'[8]

The average national and state figures are known; for Hessen they are as follows: 4.9% came from working-class homes; 2.2% were the children of farmers and agricultural workers; 39% of nongraduate civil servants and salaried employees; and 31% of graduates; 18% alone came from the group comprising teachers, clergymen and doctors.

3. **Students Campaign on Behalf of Education**

The representatives of the Eighth German Student Conference, held in April 1965 in Bonn, learning the complexities of German education asserted that 'the educational system upholds a class structure that is no longer adequate to the requirements of our age of technology.'[9]

This, they said, was the reason why the pools of ability were not being made use of. Loud and clear came the demand: 'University places for working-class children!' Figures were adduced to prove that the shortage of teachers in the Federal Republic was assuming threatening proportions, while the number of pupils obtaining the certificate of maturity and the proportion of pupils receiving full-time education was unsatisfactory. A revolutionary plan was born. The students intended to 'go into the country.' In small towns and villages they planned to organize lectures and discussions and carry on a 'campaign for education;' they hoped to persuade parents to send their children to secondary schools or allow them to attend institutes of higher education. The efforts of these 'apostles of working-class education,' as they were called, 'would be praiseworthy enough if they achieved nothing else apart from reducing not merely the gulf which lies between the population and educational institutions but also the social gulf that separates the students from the working population.'[10]

Reactions among the public were divided when the 'Verband Deutscher Studentenschaften' (the German students' representative body) called upon students at institutes of higher education in Germany to take part in demonstrations aimed at exposing the weak points in German educational system (too few grammar school pupils reaching university entrance level, and too few children of agricultural and industrial workers at grammar school and university). Some people welcomed the sudden interest in educational policy shown by the younger generation, others considered the students' pamphlets and banners too 'cheap' and doubted that their words would ever be followed by deeds.

Students at the University of Freiburg demonstrated that what they said was intended to be taken seriously. They started a student campaign in rural areas, known as 'Student auf's Land.' The students taking part in the campaign on behalf of education received a thorough preparation for their task. The idea was to encourage people living in remote rural areas of the Black Forest, and also workers in industrial regions, to send their children to secondary schools and to illustrate the necessity of the most thorough school and vocational education possible for the world of tomorrow. From September 1965 to March 1966 the Freiburg students held lectures in 400 communities with total audiences of about 18.00 people. The students found sympathetic listeners and would score many results.

Averages for the whole state showed that the rush to secondary schools generally increased rapidly, reaching 38% as compared with only 30.5% in 1963; 15.6% decided in favor of intermediate schools, 22.4% for grammar schools. In South Baden, the region selected by the students for their campaign, intermediate schools reported 32.7% more entries at the

beginning of the new school year than in the previous year. South Baden, which had hitherto been considered particularly backward in the field of school education, has thus far exceeded the average for the state of Baden-Württemberg as a whole, where the general increase in intermediate school entries was 15.3%.

The students found by experience that farmers in South Baden were more easily persuaded to let their children go to intermediate school than to grammar school, which is usually situated further away from home. One reason was that transport facilities are poor, but there is also the fact that an intermediate school education is shorter than a grammar school education, and consequently easier for parents to accept. Thus the number of new entries to intermediate schools increased by more than 100% in some of the rural areas visited by the students. These individual instances however should not necessarily be taken as indicative of the general situation. The students from Freiburg University were not alone in their efforts on behalf of children with ability in Baden-Württemberg. In recent months this state has carried on the campaign to make people 'educationally minded' with particular energy. The Minister of Education himself spent weeks visiting the most remote Black Forest villages in order to arouse people's interest in education and at the same time learn of their worries and objections for himself. But whatever the main reason for the increased number of entries in the secondary schools, the students have certainly played their part.

This rush for places at the grammars schools meant that the Ministry of Education was faced with a new problem almost without knowing it: the shortage of school premises and grammar school teachers in Baden-Württemberg is assuming threatening proportions. Already emergency measures are being considered, such as the introduction of double shifts in some schools. In order to alleviate the shortage of grammar school teachers it is proposed to set up a shortened three-year course of studies for some grammar school teachers; those taking this special course would be qualified to teach in junior and intermediate grammar school classes.

The example of the Freiburg students had been followed by other students in Saarbrücken, Tubingen, Heidelberg, Stuttgart, München, Ludwigsburg, Weingarten and Karlsruhe.[11] The main goal was to give the parents thorough information about the educational facilities available, but above all to make working-class parents understand the value of a longer school education for their children. The Freiburg students did not consider their mission to be completed. They had taken to heart the complaints made by many parents, who were afraid that their children might fail at grammar school because they themselves could not help them with their homework due to lack of time or their own educational deficiencies. At the suggestion of a grammar school headmaster in Breisach they at once provided ten students, who in groups of two take turns supervising the pupils when they do their homework at this school in the afternoon. They did not provide coaching lessons, but started to simply ensure that the pupils could concentrate on their written exercises without being disturbed. One hour was available for this purpose. A pupil who had failed to understand something could discuss it with his classmates outside the classroom. These experiments had been under way since the beginning of 1966. The pupils' performances, according to their teachers, have shown a very considerable improvement. In one class average results have risen by 1.5 grades, and out of 17 who were originally classified as 'unsatisfactory' only three pupils are left. The Freiburg students, justifiably proud of such success, asked the Minister for Cultural Affairs for Baden-Württemberg, Professor Wilhelm Hahn, to encourage similar experiments in other high schools of the state.

In the meantime, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Bavaria and Hamburg have followed example and announced that pupils in the junior grammar school classes are in future to be given additional or supplementary lessons free of charge in the afternoons if they want them.

This is intended above all as a concession of pupils whose parents had not attended grammar school themselves and they could not help their children with their homework. Frequently it is precisely these parents who are not in a

financial position to pay for private coaching lessons.

In Bavaria the supplementary lessons are to be given first of all at one-third of all state grammar schools. They will generally be in German, mathematics and the chief foreign language.

In Hamburg the experiments now being carried out with additional lessons in English and mathematics have been so successful that the scheme is to be extended to all grammar schools.

It cannot be said that German students had previously attracted attention on account of their interest in public affairs. This state of affairs now appears to be changing. In general one can say that for the first time in about one hundred years students are showing the desire to become active in public and are coming out with claims and demands of a general political nature. The theme of their conference, 'How much is the young generation worth to the state?' had been embedded, not without some feeling for the general political topic of the moment, in the general discussion on educational planning and German education as a whole.

In a ten-point program adopted by the student body they demanded:

"1. More importance to be attached to educational policy, 2. Planning and financing of education on a national scale, 3. Comprehensive propaganda for education, 4. Surmounting of difficulties in deciding which authorities are competent for cultural and educational policy, 5. Immediate establishment of a Council of Education, 6. Setting up of a horizontally streamed comprehensive school system, 7. Rationalization of courses of study, 8. Expansion of what is known as the 'Zweite Bildungsweg,' 9. Full use to be made of pools of ability, 10. Comprehensive system of training grants on a standardized, national scale."[12]

In recent months the German public had had the opportunity of concerning itself with the mentality of German students in the sixties. When the students in the beginning of their Eighth German Student Conference (25-29 of April, 1965) posed the widely publicized question: How much is the young generation worth to the state? the students received a great deal of unfriendly comment, particularly as some demanded a 'student salary' in place of the previous scholarships for talented and needy students. They were dubbed 'young drones' and 'the nation's problem children' in the leading articles of the most important daily newspapers. The Federal Minister of Science and Research, Hans Lenz, asserted that the sweat of honest men was still superior to the anger of young men.[13]

The search for the 'pools of ability' and the wish to scoop the 'untapped talent reserve' has found manifold support. It forms a main feature in German educational planning in 1966. Paul Mikat (Nordrhein-Westfalen) concluded: 'Naturally the reform of our educational system is not just a question of investment. Financial aid can always create only a framework within which the internal reform can be accomplished. The reason why this reform is so difficult however is that it requires of us a sacrifice that is perhaps even greater than the financial one — the giving up of outmoded ideas, which for a variety of reasons we only let go of unwillingly. Our need is for intensive planning and objective discussion if we wish to survive along with the other nations. For a nation that does not equip itself intellectually today throws away its chances of success in the future.'[14]

Summary

The campaign for the untapped talent resource had many tangible results. It led to the establishment of Mittelpunktsschulen to give a better education to children from rural areas. It called special attention to this problem among the educational authorities. It resulted in better provisions for the lateral transfer and in more funds and greater support for the '2nd path to education.' It resulted in a change in educational planning from small-step approaches to long-range planning and from a stage of state planning to co-ordinated planning on a national level. It resulted in nationwide recognition of the teacher shortage which had grown to 'threatening proportions' and it stirred great efforts to raise the number of Abitur graduates. It resulted in a nationwide campaign to make parents 'educationally minded,' and to encourage low-class

families to allow their children to take part in secondary and higher education. It resulted in the effort to remove the gulf among the social classes and to change an outdated mode of thinking that separated more than 50% of the population from institutions of higher learning.

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WORLD EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP
United States Section

*'. . . an idea;' our embodiment of it**

A brief statement submitted to Chapter Leaders when Dr. Theodore Rice became President of U.S. Section.

Some years ago, when the International President of the World Education Fellowship, K. G. Saiyidain, was a guest of the newly formed Great Lakes Chapter, he said: '. . . The Fellowship is not an organization, it is an idea.' The idea with the idealism behind the Fellowship is indeed inspiring. Man's hopes for a fellowship of man have flamed high after our tragic wars, our view from space of the world as a 'garden' has again pointed up the urgency that we persist in efforts to achieve a world fellowship.

*A statement from Ted Rice, on assumption of U.S. Section presidency of the W.E.F., September 1, 1969.

Increasingly education is being recognized as a vehicle for achieving purpose — local control, regional plan, national policy. In this climate, how can **world fellowship** be encouraged? Many agencies are dedicated to the idea, but assumption of responsibility for it as a paramount educational goal is the commitment of this organization.

Since we are a Fellowship, there is little room for 'grand design.' In our own ways, in our own chapters, in our own milieu as individual members, we in the United States Section are shaping approaches to help each other, to help teachers, students and communities approach the improvement of living in our 'world garden,' our 'global village.' We are doing this as we share in the complex problems of negotiation, of urban education, of enhancing the worth and self image of every citizen, of every child and every youth in both rural and metropolitan areas. We are seeking to do this without implicit cultural imperialism, paternalism, or professional manipulation.

Because we **are** an idea, because we do not cohere within a design, communication among us is imperative. The simplest of organizational structure is sought. But there must be organization, since we must facilitate communication between our chapters in this Section, and since we are only one of a number of sections over the world with which we also seek communication. Dr. Sam Everett, our outgoing president, has graciously agreed to direct Publications and Promotion for the United States Section. As you know, he was at work at this job throughout his presidency. The scope of the work of your section officers and directors will be developed in subsequent news letters.

We urge you to share with us your decisions as to where your efforts this year are being directed. At our two Midwest conferences at Haven Hill, we have directed our attention to urban planning and the education of minorities, to education in ghettos — the suburban white ghetto as well as the urban black; we have considered the potential and values in youth activism; we have looked at problems of air, water and land pollution and waste. We have exchanged information about sources for marshalling materials for units of study on these

and other problems of internationl concern.

But how do we help our returning Peace Corps, Vista and military veterans use their energies to build a world fellowship? How do we help the human family grasp and deal **now** with the population crisis? How do we help direct the attention of educationists to the urgencies of environmental planning which uses the resources of the conservationist, the urban and regional planner, the architect, the economists? How do we help immunize ourselves and our students from the virus of ethnocentrism, of 'beginning with conclusions,' of indoctrination to unilaterial decisions? Please keep your national officers informed of your work with these and other problems. As you know, the national meeting is held in conjunction with the annual ASCD meeting. This year it will be in San Francisco. Last year's meeting in Chicago dealt with conflict resolution and was an especially stimulating meeting. We hope you will plan to attend the meeting in San Francisco.

I cannot end this message without paying tribute to Sam Everett, for it is through his vision and persistence that W.E.F. has again become an active part of American Education. From the platform of Carleton Washburn's efforts, and the contacts and friendships he developed with W.E.F.'s officers and directors in the International W.E.F., he has encouraged many of us to maintain our affiliation with W.E.F., others to join, and to form or to reactivate local chapters.

Much could be reported of his roles in the international conferences, for example at Dreibergen, Holland; Askov, Denmark; and Chichester, England; and in encouraging contributions to our U.S. Fellowship publications and the **New Era.** Further, he has continued active study in comparative education. A major scholarly contribution in this respect is the volume, **Growing Up in English Secondary Schools.** It is with affection and pleasure that I add these few sentences. We continue to count on his active participation and support.

An Outline of Intellectual Rubbish Reconsidered

Joe Park, School of Education, Northwestern University and a recent Director, U.S. Section.

Some say it is the generation gap that divides us. Whereas it was once understood to have comprised about thirty years it is now said to have been narrowed to three or four years. There are those who predict that in the near future it will be reduced to one year or less. Certainly these persons are not speaking in terms of biological generations for medical science reports that the normal term for the human baby is still nine months, and that most human beings are incapable of reproducing before the age of twelve or thirteen. There are exceptions, however, as is most frequently noted among the first born. We are fond of saying that the first child can be born at any time but that the second can be expected nine months following conception.

I take it what is usually meant by the term 'generation gap' is that the older members of a society generally regard the younger members as immature, irresponsible, intrepid, indifferent, and insolent. On the other hand, the younger persons tend to look upon the older ones as inconsistent, insensitive, inveigling, intrenched and insufferable. When we think we see these flaws (real or imagined) in the characters of our contemporaries, there is little wonder that the lines of mutual trust and communication tend to break down.

Now, this phenomena of the so-called generation gap is neither new to history nor is it ubiquitous. The Greeks and Romans noted it. It was present in the middle ages, and it was discussed by our Puritan forefathers. I must confess that as I grew up I noted how very backward, ignorant and, above all, prying my parents were. As Mark Twain remarked in the last century, I could hardly stand to be around them. As we grew older, I noted a preceptible change gradually come over them which I have attributed, rightly or wrongly, to the success of my instruction.

On the other hand, not all youth reject the ideas of their elders. Neither do all elders view their

offsprings as cubs to be cuffed into submissive conformity. Where the generation gap exists as we have defined it, it is most pronounced where adults pretend wisdom they do not possess, confuse repeated error with experience, treat halftruths, mistakes, and notions as if they were knowledge, and preach a code of ethics which is violated at every convenience. Dissent on the part of youth under these circumstances would seem desirable although it is unlikely that this or any other social system can or will tolerate very much of it. Nothing I have said is to be interpreted that all blame rests with the adults and all reason and insight with the young. This is too simple and romantic a notion to be seriously entertained.

It is true, however, that the young listen to the old when they feel the latter has something worthwhile to say. There are more than four years difference in the age of the radical left and Herbert Marcuse. Nevertheless, the radical left finds Marcuse relevant. Herman Hesse died some time ago but some of our most intelligent and sensitive students discover that his works are pertinent today. Shakespeare wrote many years ago but students still read and produce his plays. Bertrand Russell, although he was ninety years of age, was the recognized leader of the world movement to ban the bomb. In fact, one of his little essays, written many years ago, bears so directly upon what I want to say here that I should like to make some specific references to it and update it in a few places. It is called 'An Outline of Intellectual Rubbish'.[1] Russell began his essay by citing the claim that man is rational. He quickly stated, however, that he had not come across convincing evidence in favor of the statement in spite of a search that had spread through three continents and many countries. Instead he said he found a world plunging continually further into madness. He confessed he found this depressing but he disclaimed gloom as a 'useless emotion.' In order to escape from the sense of gloom he was driven to a study of the past which he said confirmed Erasmus' discovery that folly is perennial and yet the human has survived.[2] The follies of a particular time are easier to see if viewed against a background of past follies. In the remainder of his essay Russell mixed the silliness of the day with that of earlier times. A few examples will make his point as well as the one I wish to make.

Russell remarked that when Benjamin Franklin invented the lightning rod, the clergy condemned it as impious for it was an obvious attempt to defeat God's will. The clergy reasoned, as all right-thinking persons knew, that God sent lightning to punish the wicked. Therefore, if God wanted to strike down someone, Benjamin Franklin had no right to prevent him from doing so. But God reportedly tried to get around Franklin's device in Boston. He sent a quake Following the quake one clergyman declared in a sermon, 'In Boston are more churches erected than elsewhere in New England, and Boston seems to be more dreadfully shaken. Oh! there is no getting out of the mighty hand of God.' But Russell went on to observe that God must have given up on curing Boston of its wickedness for as lightning rods continued to increase earthquakes remained quite rare. Lest you think this kind of thinking does not occur any longer, let me hasten to remind you that a Presbyterian minister of my personal aquaintance attributed the flooding of the Ohio River Valley in 1937 to the sinfulness of the people residing there. I have not the slightest doubt that he was correct on one point. Some of the people were evil for I was a resident of the valley at the time. In 1969 a Chicago minister and super patriot declared, following the release of the men on the Pueblo, that as righteous people it was America's duty to use military might to teach the godless North Koreans a thing or two about humility and piety. One might wonder whether the peoples of the world, but most especially the North Koreans, would think us either humble or pious if we were to follow this ill-advised course of action.

Commenting further on the clergy, Russell wrote that he was sometimes shocked by the blasphemies of those who think themselves pious. As a case in point he tells of nuns who were said never to take a bath without wearing a bathrobe all the time. When asked why, since no man could view them in the privacy of their bath, they are supposed to have replied, 'Oh!, but you forget the good God.' Apparently the good God is a peeping tom whose powers enable him to see through the bathroom walls but not through bathrobes. If this is the case, then some doubt can be cast upon His omnipotence. Russell found

the attitude of the nuns curious and I find it odd myself. But then the whole notion of sin struck Russell as curious, doubtless because he was so sinful. After all, he did advocate pacifism, practice free love, insult the American army, and confess that he has broken all the commandments save part of one. He cannot recall ever coveting his neighbor's ass.

St. Thomas once raised a troublesome question. Suppose a cannibal were to eat nothing but the flesh of human beings. Would not then every part of his body belong to another? We cannot suppose that those who were eaten are to go through eternity without their body. How could they be properly roasted in hell? While you try puzzling this out for yourselves, consider for a moment a woman who recently insisted that her mother be buried with her shoes on since the deceased would need them to walk about heaven. Apparently the good lady never questioned the destination of her mother or thought of the possibilities that shoes would be provided, or possibly not needed.

Let us not dwell any longer upon religious matters, but go on to consider another common source of intellectual rubbish. The powers of governments over the beliefs of men has been great, especially since the rise of the large nation states. A belief, Russell reminded his readers, is important, however untrue it may be, when it dominates the actions of large masses of people. Perhaps no one was more cognizant of this than Adolf Hitler. In this sense the beliefs inculcated in Japan, Germany and Russia before the last war were extremely important. Since they were divergent points of view they could not all be true, although they could well be false. Whether true or false, unfortunately they inspired men to kill one another in large numbers as Harrison E. Salbury so well documents in his sobering book, **The 900 Days: The Siege of Leningrad.** It appears relatively easy to create a population of fanatical lunatics. It might be just as easy to create a nation of sane and reasonable people but most governments do not wish to do so since sane and reasonable people would most likely fail to admire some of their politicians. If there is one thing those in power do not want it is for the boat to be rocked.

Even today, and in the United States of America, governments seek to restrict the freedom of their subjects to criticize. Two recent cases come to mind. President Thieu of South Viet Nam threatened to 'punish' anyone who called the removal of the first 25,000 Americans a 'withdrawal'. President Nixon's address at the graduation ceremonies at the Air Force Academy in Colorado Springs, Colorado this past June is another. The President reaffirmed his belief in America's greatness. He expressed a willingness to spend too much for defense rather than too little. He went on to declare that our military might will be used to promote a just world order based upon 'American idealism'. He reminded us that our enemy is still communism and that it must be halted at every point by renewing our dedication, strengthening our alliances, maintaning a high level of military spending and generating the support of **all** the American people. Let us pass lightly over the doubt that one might express with regard to promoting a just world by upholding American ideals. In the first place America has conflicting ideals. It is simply untrue that there is one 'correct' set of American ideals and there certainly is no one accepted set of ideals. Even if we were to grant that there were one correct and agreed-upon set of ideals, it still could be doubted that we would be capable of implementing these ideals abroad. Our lack of success in establishing democracy in Viet Nam is sobering at this point. Furthermore, we have been rather markedly unsuccessful at home in enforcing the basic principles set forth in our constitution. Likewise, let us not pause long to consider whether communism is the monolithic structure so many Americans feel that it is. One might be tempted to remark, in passing, that if all communists were found dead in their beds tomorrow morning the basic issues of war, population explosion, disease, poverty, and race hatred would remain to be solved. Instead, let us direct more of our attention to President Nixon's admonition regarding criticism of the military.

I don't know whether you read Russell Baker's article in the **New York Times,** Sunday, June 8, 1969. It appeared immediately following President Nixon's commencement address at the Air Force Academy. Baker describes a series of make-believe calls to the Pentagon made by

his friends in an attempt to apologize for having criticized the military in the past. Baker's first friend called an admiral who was busy investigating why one of our destroyers had collided with an Australian aircraft carrier. His second friend called a captain on the West coast only to be told the captain was unavailable. He was investigating why one of our nuclear subs sank at the dock. A third friend called an army colonel and asked for an appointment. The appointment was denied because the colonel was working long hours 'composing an explanation of why we abandoned Hamburger Hill after capturing it because we couldn't afford to have the enemy occupy it.' A fourth friend tried to call an airforce general but found he was tied up in the preparation of a plausible explanation as to why the cost of the C-5A was allowed to run two billion dollars over the estimates. A fifth friend asked for still another general of the airforce. Unfortunately, he too could not be reached. He was trying to find out why F-111's crash so frequently and could not take time out to receive an apology. A sixth friend called Denver in hopes of reaching some official there but was told that the official could not be disturbed. He was responsible for 200 cars of nerve gas which he had planned on dumping in the Atlantic Ocean off the coast of Jersey. Due to the interference of some critical, and perhaps unpatriotic politicians and citizens, he had to stop shipment. Now he was told to sit there with the nerve gas until someone could figure out what ought to be done with it. In light of these and other mistakes and follies of the military, it is extremely difficult for me to believe it unpatriotic to criticize. In fact, the opposite would seem to be the case. Criticism seems justified. It would be unpatriotic not to criticize. In fact, the opposite would seem to be the case. Criticism seems justified. It would be unpatriotic not to criticize. Unless the military is subjected to constant criticism and review the likelihood of it repeating its mistakes are great indeed. The probability of it becoming (or should I say remaining) the dominating force in America is great still.

So far we have been suggesting the need for open-mindedness and intellectual courage to reconsider even our most cherished beliefs. It would appear that we eschew all conformity. This is not the intent as Russell so wisely perceived, for if conformity has its dangers so has nonconformity. Some are of the opinion that anyone who differs from the conventional opinion must be right. If this were so, truth would be easy to come by. As a famous American philosopher pointed out thirty years ago, to turn from the accepted to the opposite extreme is to think in 'either or' terms. One can be just as dogmatic about the new and opposite extreme as ever were those who upheld the present line of thought. There is an infinite possibility of error and this thought should sober us all. We need to be on guard against our own particular brand of intellectual rubbish, new or old. If you ask, 'How do we escape from the bonds of intellectual rubbish?' Russell would reply, 'It's not going to be easy but I have several suggestions for you.'

1. If the matter is one that can be settled by observation, make the observation yourself if at all possible. Assuming that Mrs Aristotle had a full set of teeth, Mr Aristotle could have avoided the error of thinking that women had fewer teeth by requesting her to keep her mouth open while he counted. He did not do so because he thought he knew.

2. Many matters, however, are not easily brought to the test of direct experience. Our most fierce arguments are usually over matters involving normative judgments. If an opinion contrary to ours makes us angry we probably have little evidence to support our position. To rid ourselves of certain prejudices and dogmatisms it is well to become aware of the opionions and habits of others different from our more immediate circle of acquaintances. For those with enough imagination, a make-believe argument with some person can have a salutary effect.

3. Beware of opinions that flatter the self-esteem and fears that produce superstitions and paralysis. Human beings are capable of believing the most fantastic things about themselves, a characteristic carefully noted by those who would flatter us. Collective fears stimulate the herd instinct, according to Russell, and tend to produce ferocious attitudes toward our adversaries. Neither a man, nor a crowd, nor a nation can be trusted to act

humanely under the influence of great fear.

It may have occurred to those of you who have elected to follow me this far to ask, 'What does all this have to do with me? After all, I'm interested in teaching, not religion or politics.' Your question is an appropriate one and I shall attempt to deal with it briefly. In our highly organized, heavily-populated, scientifically-sophisticated and media-dominated world, men apparently feel they are more powerless to influence their destinies. Many problems seem neither intelligible nor manageable. At the same time governments have become larger while remaining wasteful and often ineffective. In some ways they are paralyzed by the vastness of their power. The most powerful nation on earth seems unable to subdue a nation smaller than several of its states, unless, of course, it resorts to nuclear warfare. But then, what would remain after the nation was subdued?

Organized religion, our other source of illustration, continues to fetter the minds of its adherents although its influence may be declining. For example, Billy Graham teaches that there is a personal devil and that there are demons.[3] Apparently he no longer believes that heaven is exactly 1600 miles square as he once did. While the power of the nation-state has increased and the power of the church has been weakened somewhat, education has come to be provided chiefly by the church and the state. Teachers are made aware by their superiors that it is NOT their function to teach only that which is true or what they believe. Instead they are often expected to accept and to teach that which is popular doctrine or that which is useful to the state. In some instances this includes that which is false or problematical. Thus teachers are often paid, albeit not too well either, to teach certain approved kinds of intellectual rubbish. Teachers have become, in a vast number of cases, dutiful servants obliged to, often willing to, carry out the behests of men who have not their learning and whose attitude toward education is that of propaganda. They have lost sight of their proper function of teaching according to Russell.

It should be the business of teachers to stand outside the strife of parties and endeavour to instill in the youth the habit of impartial inquiry, leading them to judge issues on their merit and to be on guard against accepting **ex parte** statements at their face value. The teacher should not be expected to flatter the prejudices of either the mob or of officials. His professional virtue should consist in a readiness to do justice to all sides, and in an endeavour to rise above controversey into a region of dispassionate scientific investigation.[4]

Thus it is the business of the teacher to help uproot the noxious weed of intellectual rubbish. There is no higher calling. This is why a constant reconsideration of our intellectual rubbish is both so necessary and so relevant to teaching. It will enable us to better achieve the function Russell sets for us and it promises to help restore the confidence of the young in their elders.

1. Bertrand Russell 'An Outline of Intellectual Rubbish' in **Unpopular Essays.** New York: Simon and Schuster, 1950, pp. 71-111.
2. Russell is now convinced that the human race is likely to exterminate itself before the end of this century.
3. Edward B. Fiske, 'The Closest Thing to a Whitehouse Chaplain' **New York Times** Magazine, June 8, 1969.
4. 'The Functions of a Teacher' in **Unpopular Essays,** pp. 112-23. The quotation is found on pages 116-117.

How We Taught Speaking and Writing

by **Florence Surfleet**

Miss Dorothy Matthews and I started what we called The Matthews-Surfleet School of English, when we left the English Section of the New Education Fellowship in 1930, where Miss Matthews had been secretary of the English Section (doing some teaching of English voluntarily in her spare time to make money for the Fellowship), and where I had been Honorary Secretary of the Manchester Branch of the N.E.F. until I came to London at the end of 1929 to take her place in the office, while she went on a Spelman Scholarship to America to study parent-teacher work there.

We found after a time that people thought that our work in English must concentrate on teaching English to foreigners and helping students to get through examinations in English, and so we changed the name to The Matthews-Surfleet School of Speaking and Writing, and it ran under that name until 1966, when we decided to give it up because it was growing so large, and devote ourselves to writing, so as to share our experiences more widely. From the beginning we had in the lessons English people who wanted to speak in public or write for publication; housewives who wanted to be able to write letters more easily; office workers who wanted to be able to speak more happily on the phone or write reports or undertake interviewing or speaking for their firm; children of all ages and grown-ups who had some special difficulty over speaking or writing or in their general development; as well as foreigners and examination students. People sometimes came for lessons because they had some big problem in their lives, or because they felt themselves to be in a rut and desired to find a new job or promotion. Through developing their powers of expression in language, these people were able to solve problems and find new jobs or gain promotion.

When we set up work together, I became responsible for the housekeeping, and Dorothy for the teaching. We read all MSS and planned all lessons together; I took down the correspondence lessons, and wrote the books that we needed for the work. I attended all the classes that we held in schools for children, and in Evening Institutes and at our own Headquarters for adults.

The work ran from the beginning on New Education lines, for both of us always have been keen on the principles of progressive education. Dorothy had at an earlier point, on the basis of her degree, done individual and group teaching in English, French, German, Maths, etc., and a large amount of lecturing and writing; while I, as a trained teacher, possessing also a Higher Froebel certificate, had taught children mainly of Nursery School and Kindergarten age, but had taken some subjects with older children too. Dorothy felt very strongly that speaking and writing belong closely together, both coming from the same deep language centre, and she believed that development along one of the lines would greatly help the other. This proved to be the case: the person who was pen-tied could be released by doing impromptu speaking, and the stammerer could be helped through the writing to get out his thoughts and feelings more readily in speech.

Further, she believed that all types of speaking must be developed, and all types of writing, if the person is to find an all-round ability to express himself as freely as possible, whether in speech or in writing. Speech comes before writing, as the teachers of reading are seeing nowadays in a way that they formerly failed to realize, and unless a person can express himself in speech, he is to some extent held up also in his writing. Some people came to us who couldn't trust themselves to write even the simplest letter without reshaping it a number of times; and others came who never wrote anything at all, not even a letter, having over the years left all writing to their husbands; they now wanted to be able to manage letter writing for themselves. In speaking, as nothing can be rubbed out or torn up, the person lacking in confidence learns to trust himself to say what he wants to say the first time, and we always asked in the writing for the **first** draft, however many crossings out or alterations there might be in it! Through doing the impromptu speaking on a large variety of different subjects and through giving us the first draft of their writing, they were able gradually to find a new power of expression, and we shared in their joy as they succeeded.

Impromptu speaking is the natural basis for prepared speaking, and without it prepared speaking lacks flow and ease, and the speaker lacks the power to get closely into touch with his audience. When we speak freely our thoughts flow one out of another, just as they do when we write an open-hearted letter or anything else. Each thought is in some way connected with what went before and with what comes after. If we disturb this linking by rewriting a letter again and again, we become more and more dissatisfied with what we have set down and often throw it away.

We came to feel that this linking of each thought with the one before it and the one after it is

extremely important in prepared speaking; indeed we stressed it as the central factor in the preparation of a speech. We asked the would-be speaker to think deeply about the subject he had chosen for a few minutes, then when he saw how he wanted to begin to write down the shortest possible phrase to catch this first thought. We asked him to flash in his mind swiftly through all that that thought would cover, and when he saw what would come next to write down another short phrase below the first one to catch that thought, and so on to the end of his speech.

If some illustration occurred to him to bring home some point he was making, we asked him to write down a word or two beside the thought with which it belonged to recall it. If a main thought divided itself up into two or more subsidiary thoughts, these he must write down below that thought **indented.**

Here is a thread of thought for a speech on 'The Changing Discipline in Home and School'; it could last anything from 10 to 35 minutes, according to the amount of detail the speaker proposed to put into the thoughts themselves and into the illustrations:

The Changing Discipline in Home and School
Old punishing ways set up difficulties — Eton boy
Need to gain youngster's co-operation
Get rid of punishment altogether
Help child to put right instead — Harry and the clock
Modern tendencies:
  occasional return to old ways
  too much licence
Need to find balance
Giving responsibility
Expecting change
Making all school life interesting and enjoyable

Here then before him the speaker has his whole speech in a very short form, and each thought in it is linked to the others. We always stressed therefore the importance of keeping the thoughts in the order in which they had first been written down, unless for some important reason it was necessary to change their order, or to break the thread of the thought by adding something fresh or taking something out. We have never come across any other teachers who stressed this element in the preparing of a speech; indeed they all seem to feel that isolated notes are all that is required, moved about freely in any order.

We found that the thoughts for the speech, held together by the mysterious hidden processes of the subconscious, can be readily repeated in that same order, since the mind takes that same path again quite naturally. All that the speaker has to do therefore is to read through his thread of thought a few times noticing specially the link of association each time, then to lay aside the paper and say the thread through aloud and silently, not necessarily in the same words but only following the same line of argument. If he is held up at any point, he must look at his thread once more and get deeply into the working of his mind again to see why it was he moved on as he did at that point. When he finds the link he can run through the whole thread of his thought safely without being held up at that point again. Then he can write down the thread once more, still without looking at the original, just to make sure that nothing has slipped out, and if it is all in order, he is ready to stand up in a room alone and to make his speech aloud without looking at his thread of thought, unless he wants to quote figures or names or a passage from a book etc. He should time the speech carefully.

The timing of the speech is very important, because a speech that lasts too long makes a restless audience, and a speech that is too short gives the speaker a feeling of inadequacy. If when he runs through the speech it is too long, he must cut it down, either by dropping out some thought or thoughts, or by running swiftly through some thoughts that he had given at length. If it is too short he must add one or more new thoughts, or must go in detail into some thoughts that he ran swiftly over before.

Any changes that he has to make in the thread of his thought can easily break its sequence; so he must be careful to see that any new thought is connected with the one that goes before and with the one that comes after; and that at a point where any phrase is removed a new link of association can be found, so that the thread is still kept intact.

Once the speech is found to be of the right length, the speaker can hold it in mind by running through the thread once or twice each day, till the time for delivering the speech arrives. He can take the thread with him on the day if he likes, but he will not need to look at it except for quoting figures or names or reading a quotation of any kind. He is therefore freer from his notes than most speakers are, and can look round at his audience and get into deep communication with them.

Because a thread of thought is so small a piece of writing, children find it easy to compass, even when they are backward in the writing, and we often were able to get children to succeed in the public speaking at an early point in the lessons, and from this success gradually their written work became equally good, and all their school work improved remarkably. That is perhaps because confidence plays so large a part in successful achievement, and success in one line carries over to other lines — first to kindred lines, then to more remote lines.

It is extremely important to avoid criticism before others, particularly in the early stages, for a diffident speaker or writer is extremely sensitive, and a critical word can be misunderstood or brooded upon, hampering everything he does for a very long time. The criticism of fellow students in a class must be prevented. Everything spoken in public meeting style should be treated as a proper speech, questions and discussion should follow, and these may of course show differences of opinion and approach, but there should be no criticism of style or manner of delivery, except from the teacher in private, and then only after allowing time for it to come right by itself.

Fluent speaking can be greatly helped by doing spontaneous acting, either alone or in pairs or small groups, and this acting helps in the writing of similar conversations, sketches etc. Children or adults working in pairs should be asked to give conversations to last for a minute or so, after discussing with their partners quietly what kind of people they will be and how they will carry out the scene. For instance they can portray one of the following:

1) the returning of a damaged book or typewriter etc. to its owner

2) a quarrel between two close friends or relatives

3) a conflict of wills

4) a misunderstanding

There should actually be a large number of suggestions to choose from, so that each pair can find something that really appeals to them. The members of the group can always readily add fresh suggestions to a list.

A conversation may sometimes be done in two ways — first in an ungenerous unfriendly way and then in a generous understanding way with the same characters and situation in each. In discussion afterwards youngsters will be able to show how the words and feelings were influenced by the unfriendly and by the friendly approach.

Last-minute conversations are fun; the difficult thing that the person wants to say is left till it is almost too late to say it — the train is beginning to move, or the hostess is showing her friend out, before courage is found to ask for the loan or to tell the bad news etc. It is fun, too, to **sing** the words of a conversation spontaneously, making up the tune as you go along; this we call **pretend opera.** It brings flexibility and a new expressiveness to the speaking voice.

Acting in threes and fours is always enjoyed. Each group chooses a suggestion from the list and works it out quietly. The following come out well:

1) a disturbed night

2) someone coming between two close friends or relatives

3) an interrupted meal

Individual acting can begin as miming with an occasional word spoken to someone off stage, or there can be a few words of monologue:

1) someone searching feverishly for something

2) someone rushing to catch a train

Then the single actor can speak **both** sides of a conversation himself, showing by voice and words which one is speaking each time; or he can speak the words of **one** speaker and can pretend to listen to the words of the second speaker, bringing in some reference to what he says in his reply here and there, so that the listeners know what is happening. This can be done as one side of a telephone conversation if desired.

Conversations and sketches should now be written (in play form with the speaker's name near the margin underlined each time) and then acted by members of the group when suitable.

Story telling can be done either individually or a bit each in a group, from a beginning or on a suggested theme. Here are one or two possible beginnings for the spoken stories:

1) David awoke with a start when he . . .

2) 'Give it to me' yelled Paul as Michael . . .

and here are one or two themes:

1) a broken promise

2) an unposted letter

3) a death-bed confession

Stories on the same lines should be written and read aloud to the group.

Personal experiences of all kinds are valuable, both when shared orally and when written. They should be told as vividly as possible but kept quite accurate.

Poetry reading and writing and singing can help expression along all the other lines. We always asked from time to time that a favourite poem should be sung a line each in turn, to any tune that the singers chose to make up as they went along. When asking for written poems we always said that there should be no attempt to write in regular rhyme or beat. Free verse, with the line as the only technical peculiarity, depends on the depth of the writer's feeling and brings far better poetry in the early stages than metric pattern.

Side by side with the free singing of poems, we asked for the singing of melodies that I had written to Dorothy's and my poems. These melodies are in sol-fa notation and have no bar lines or signs of time duration; they take their rhythm and speed from the meaning and feeling of the poem itself. This singing frequently breaks through musical difficulties of varying kinds.

We feel that all teaching should be gay and light-hearted, and yet the teacher must have her mind always on the student's full all-round development. This, it seems to us, is the special challenge to the progressive educator. English with its opportunities for discussing character interplay and development, personal relationships, and the way situations of difficulty arise and can be resolved, offers marvellous opportunities to the keen teacher.

Every theme suggested should be tackled in the thought of bringing the situation of difficulty, whatever it is, through to harmony and happiness. If, however, this proves impossible to the writer and his story or play ends in tragedy, he can be helped to see what it was in the characters or in the situation that made this result inevitable unless some change could be brought about in time. The solving of a problem in his story often shows the writer how a similar problem in his own life, or in the life of a friend, can be solved. It is the creative process operating in the writing that opens up a new understanding. The same thing happens also in the acting.

We always corrected all MSS **in pencil**; the alterations could then be inked in by the writer if desired, and he didn't feel that the MS was spoilt by immovable ink marks. We asked that misspelt words in frequent use should be written in a sentence or paragraph of the writer's own composition and underlined; this fixed the spelling, and gave the writer a further chance to use the word in a context of his own choosing, where all his concentration was on the spelling. We also sometimes worked out funny sentences with a student containing all the words of the

same family that caused him difficulty: **kn**ow, **kn**ows, un**kn**own, **kn**owing, **kn**ew, **kn**owledge etc.; science, scientific, conscientious, conscious, conscience, with the 'sci' in each from the Latin **scire**=to know.

Through all the years a large number of our lessons were by correspondence — some with students as far distant as India and Africa, whom we never saw, and others with students who came for an occasional visit lesson. We covered public speaking by correspondence and the acting and so on, and one person even lost a bad stammer through correspondence lessons.

People whose mind had gone blank when doing public speaking, and those who coudn't bring themselves to get up and make even a small beginning, were helped to do the speaking happily through the visit lessons, and sometimes undertook it finally as part of a paid job with great success. Many people with difficulties in the writing in the end wrote successfully for publication.

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Articles accepted by:
Teacher, PNEU Journal, Nursery World, Health for All
Teachers' World, Family Circle, My Home and Family etc.

Author of:
The Child in Home and School
What to Do in the Speakers' Class
Learn to Speak
Triangular Relationships
The Psychology of Peacemaking
Stories of Peter and Pat (Macmillian O/P)
Reading by Rhythm (Nelson O/P) etc.

Society and Education

Review of Recent Books

J. R. Bellerby, M.C., M.A.

The first book here noticed, though not concerned with educational method, provides a theme suitable for linking together all the other works to be reviewed. It describes in striking terms certain modern social conditions which raise problems for the educator — problems which will grow in difficulty in the coming years if the trends to which it calls attention continue.

A title such as **The Broilerhouse Society** prepares the reader for similes which, while effectively and justly stirring the imagination, are not in all ways exact. Patrick Goldring, author of this work (Leslie Frewin, 1969, 30s.) is aware that the picture he presents of modern society has more affinity to a battery than a broilerhouse, each household being independent, and that the human housing arrangements differ from both these animal types in a crucial respect: humans stay at home through preference induced by ease and convenience, whereas the factory animals stay perforce. Common to all these living arrangements, however, is the congestion and, especially, the immobility, whether forced or free. The effect on men may closely resemble the effect on animals; and it is this which spreads alarm among citizens who are not yet themselves, beyond recall, B people ('Broilerhouse people' in the Goldring glossary).

'When our environment is fully controlled'. Goldring declares (p.13), 'there will be little we shall want that will be unobtainable at home'. Nor shall we have the incentive to move. Most of us have discovered that when too many people want to do something, none can enjoy it fully. Motoring, once a pleasure, is now mostly an exhausting tedium and we are threatened with its further curtailment and restriction. Within the next ten years or so much the same may happen to sailing. Traffic lanes for shipping have been instituted in the English Channel and traffic jams for yachts in the Solent may not be far away. When that

happens, the well-conditioned broilerhouse man will get the message, give up his yacht and go home to watch sailing on television.

The author has much to add regarding the conditions which breed a factory-farm manner of life. Already there are the great tower blocks, council house and building estates, and caravan parks; supermarkets, local stores, mail order catalogues and other means of obtaining consumer goods at or near the door; the television set, replacing the cinema, and giving a better view of outdoor entertainment than can be obtained on the field itself; an immense expansion of do-it-yourself machines, techniques and materials; and the gradual loss of social life, which progressively disappears as these aids consolidate the stay-in habit.

What, then, is the effect of an indoor and mainly sedentary existence on the human mind, personality and behaviour? Goldring suggests (p.18):

'In the human broilerhouse there is a danger of boredom producing vices even when bad housing conditions are eliminated. Already a significant proportion of present-day crime is generated by relatively modern, non-slum environments. Much juvenile delinquency has been attributed to teenagers' desire to get out of the living-room where Mum and Dad are watching telly — only to find that broilerhouse living offers youngsters practically nowhere to go outside the home in the evening.'

There is reference to certain palliatives for the nervous tension due to the overcrowding — for example, a growing tendency to live in semi-darkness, with possibly soothing effect, and the massive increase in the use of drugs and tranquillizers — palliatives common to both the factory farm and human society. Other policies mentioned seem not significantly more promising as remedies. The writer reflects that the drive towards conformity may itself produce, by reaction, 'a new class of criminal', no longer the socially inadequate product of a broken home, but a restless individual refusing to fit in.

The reader may without difficulty fill in further details. In the process he may be drawn to a certain general conclusion, and a new point of departure. Life **consists** in **movement**. When there is neither physical nor mental movement, there is nothing. To view this position more positively, all creatures, mankind especially, are endowed with a great variety of qualities, each of which serves a particular purpose and can develop virtually without limit in response to exercise. Life therefore basically consists in the movement or exercise of these faculties. Civilisation advances, in the technical sense, in proportion as the faculties grow in 'agility', and in mastery and overall accomplishment. And a man partakes of life individually when he is joining in the wider movement and development.

It is the opposite of this condition which gives warning of the need for action. To create a civilization in which movement steadily declines is to produce a society slowly approaching dissolution. Of this retrogressive state, boredom is the first outward symptom; and ever-increasing boredom is the sign of a continuing trend. No doubt this phenomenon will confront educators most comprehensively and continuously in the future, at least as a menace against which it is necessary always to be on guard: and only when the arts of education have advanced to the point at which boredom is being defeated in every type of school, in every class and stratum, and in the mind of every learner, will the current tendencies be effectively thrown into reverse.

That there is no lack of recognition of the need for effort on such lines is clear from the number of relevant works now being published. The problem of how to make the life of learning itself an introduction to a fully animate and vigorous existence is being broached from many aspects; it is indeed again a privilege to review books of distinction in which the authors address themselves specifically to this problem.

In **The New Era** of January 1968 we were enabled to record that under a scheme initiated by Education Services special acknowledgements had been made to two writers in view of their outstanding contribution to research into the social purposes of education: H. L. Elvin, author of **Education and Contemporary Society**, 1965; and R. F.

Mackenzie, author of **Escape from the Classroom,** 1965.

Two further books have been selected jointly under the same scheme for the period, 1967-8: **Introduction to Moral Education,** by John Wilson, Norman Williams and Barry Sugarman, 1967 (Pelican 7s. 6d.); and **The Environment of Learning,** by Elizabeth Richardson, 1967 (Nelson 35s). Of these, each has important features in common with one of the earlier books, a point which emerges especially in the comparison between Mackenzie's work and **The Environment of Learning.**

Mackenzie was so deeply concerned with the school environment that he proposed to alter it drastically by taking the scholars out of their classrooms whenever possible, and by assuring their direct contact with local, business and social interests, and above all with the treasurehouse of their own countryside. Under his regime boredom was the first enemy to be destroyed. A kindred purpose equally inspires Elizabeth Richardson; but accepting that some form of classroom society will inevitably confront educators in the coming years for much of the working day, she proceeds to analyse this type of society and assess the effects on the learner of different class structures and settings.[1]

A significant change in educational method is the emphasis now put upon learning, rather than on teaching. Miss Richardson underlines the change both in title and in content. This does not mean that she advocates the abdication of the teacher. The reverse is true. She examines with insight and knowledge the importance of personal relationships in school, the forces present in any classroom situation, and the need for all teachers to be aware of them in the interests of better education. The inevitable involvement of the teacher with his class, with individual pupils, with a situation in which he finds himself at once in and under authority, is so treated that the reader cannot fail to become more aware of the complexities of the teacher-pupil relationship. Through this understanding he may enrich the education of his pupils, and enhance both his and their enjoyment of the process.

A merit of the book is that it is supported by observed example; it is well documented, with an ample bibliography and generous index. The chapter headings indicate the orderly process of the argument. Starting with some general reflections on human relations in school, Miss Richardson moves swiftly to an examination of the problems arising between the teacher and the form, or tutorial group, and how to build positive relationships. Patterns of leadership and control are examined and illustrated. This leads to consideration of loneliness and fear of rejection. Two chapters then deal with organisational matters, such as the influence of the physical setting within the classroom, and how the teacher may improve it, and the possibly disturbing effect on the classroom atmosphere of the fragmentation of teaching by rigid time schedules.

The author then reverts to more personal topics — freedom and discipline, the proper place of co-operation and competition in the varied activities of a school, and the profound importance of the system of evaluating academic results. Here, again, as throughout the book, the reader finds himself being instructed in the forming of fruitful relationships by one who has tested the significant methods personally. And the instruction as a whole leads to one thought of special relevance for the present theme. Where a positive and successful relationship is formed between learner and tutor or teacher, a similarly sound relationship as a rule arises between learner and subject. The study of the subject itself becomes pleasurable, by contagion. Mental movement of a particular kind — potentially limitless movement — thus can acquire an aura of attraction capable of enduring for a lifetime.

In the final chapters yet further indication is given of the subsequent vital bearing of the relationships formed in school. The social importance of how the school itself is organised is stressed and illustrated. The book ends with a note on teaching and living, 'a plea for the reintegration of the life of the emotions and the life of the intellect.'

Whether spontaneously favouring this plea or not, all are urged to read the book. For us,

we should like to see more work of its kind, from the same competent hand. Surely the education of the emotions means, precisely, education in how to live — indeed in how to get much that is positive out of life despite all the modern handicaps which Goldring and others have highlighted. Miss Richardson's chief medium for emotional training appears to be to seize upon every occasion of normal and legitimate conflict, and face it as an opportunity for greater self and mutual understanding, and for practising the arts of adjustment. She has given many illustrations. For those who are concerned with post-school social attitudes, as modified or reinforced by the annual inflow of school-leavers, her account of techniques for personality education is of the utmost possible interest and enlightenment.

Roots of Disorder

It appears to be a rule of nature that if the young are not enabled to defeat boredom in the course of lawful pursuits, they will find compensating illicit means. The option before a school may thus be to exert exceptional effort in enlivening the hours of attendance, or to cope defensively with the destructive ingenuity of its more able rebels at all times. Either course would seem to involve an intensive study of the causes of boredom and disaffection in present classroom societies. Another contribution in this field, **Social Relations in a Secondary School,** by David H. Hargreaves (Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1968, 32s.) offers a particularly thoughtful and valuable analysis, making use of statistical and graphical presentation.

The author comments in introduction: "The Newsom Report has revitalized our interest in children of average and below average ability and has drawn our attention to the schools in 'problem areas' — some twenty per cent of all Secondary Modern Schools — where social and educational problems loom most terrifyingly. Many teachers in these schools received the news that the school leaving age will be raised from fifteen to sixteen years with alarm and dismay; they already feel overwhelmed with apparently insoluble problems. Yet they are problems which demand solutions, for the sake of both teachers and pupils. Lumley Secondary Modern School for Boys is situated in one of these 'problem areas'." The investigator spent a complete year at the school, entering it as a participant-observer, with the intention of examining the behaviour and attitudes of boys in school and their relationships with the teachers and with one another.

What Hargreaves found, in very broad terms, was the existence of two 'sub-cultures' within the school, corresponding roughly to the successful and the unsuccessful streams. The unsuccessful stream had lost interest in every form of school and extra-school activity, except such as would enable them to compensate for being nobodies in the eyes of authority. They had no stimulus to work; they were precluded from public examinations and had no prospect of reward, immediate or future, for any form of scholastic effort. There was little incentive even to take part in school games. (In describing what he observed the author is aware of its limitations as a basis for generalising; the period of enquiry was short; the sample was small in more than one respect; there could have been special circumstances only rarely experienced.)

The creation of an independent hostile 'sub-culture' by the lower stream was probably their reaction to the home and class situations combined. Boredom at school and boredom at home found expression in petty theft, to which the offenders freely confessed; also in malicious destructiveness, less readily admitted; in bullying the smaller boys, hostility to the upper stream, and resistance to authority wherever possible. Two conclusions may reasonably be drawn from **Social Relations in a Secondary School.** First, every school system of the kind depicted is liable to have a powerful and enduring influence on the character of those who pass through it. Secondly, the influence, in so far as it is harmful, may be produced chiefly by inaction. If almost half the boys in their first two years at the school find that they are rated as intellectual ne'er-do-wells whose presence is tolerated but not warmly welcomed, and if they suspect that teaching them is looked on permanently as a chore, there is only one consequence possible; a large-sized chip will develop on the shoulder of each young scholar concerned, and will

grow in size in the course of every month of his further compulsory school attendance. Thus if the pessimists are right in their assessment — that the proportion of anti-social, anti-positive citizens in the community as a whole is increasing — the influences which yield this result may receive strong reinforcement from school systems which fail by nothing more than through omission.

It was not any part of the author's purpose to attach responsibility. He was looking for facts, and he is to be congratulated on the collection assembled, which indicates an exceptional flair for gaining the co-operation of the young. In the last resort, any responsibility there is rests on all of us. It is for voters as a body to ensure that those who hold the nation's purse will provide inducement for competent professionals to undertake what is otherwise an extremely unrewarding task — that of making every low-stream boy and girl feel important, and continue feeling important, from the moment of entering to the moment of leaving school. This may be regarded as a task of humanity or a task of sound finance. Can the nation afford, it may be asked, to allow hundreds of thousands of young people to leave school annually feeling so bored that they must invent their own anti-social ways of avoiding atrophy?

Remedies

From analysis and diagnosis we pass to recommended action and policy. Many educationists believe that they have the answer to lethargy, and to the disorders which arise from lack of outlets for movement and exercise. It will be helpful to review in particular two recent books on educational techniques, which promise these gains coupled with a high degree of learning efficiency.

Group Work in Secondary Schools, by Barrington Kaye and Irving Rogers (O.U.P., 1968, 15s.) is noteworthy in focussing attention on one clearly defined method of education, describing it in such adequate detail that others engaged in Secondary School teaching might confidently experiment with the method, using this book as a guide. Repeatedly it is insisted that the method is supplementary to others, not a substitute for them.

A distinction is first drawn between 'group teaching' and the type of 'group work' which is the subject of the book. 'Group teaching' implies the division of classes into sub-classes, specifically according to academic aptitude: it is a means of streaming, whereby the teacher may use different techniques or adjust the rate of progress to the learners' varying abilities. In 'group work', by contrast, chosen tasks are carried out by groups, numbering, say, 4-8 each, acting on their own initiative. These groups are self-selected according to their members' personal preferences for companions and topics. In order to ensure that they become also self-directed, the teacher seeks to efface himself as the groups develop the ability to organise their own work. Unobtrusively he keeps enough contact to satisfy himself that all plans are maturing and that every individual becomes actively involved.

Any schoolmaster attracted by the scheme will doubtless wish to raise a series of questions. What is the actual procedure whereby a pupil is enabled to join a group satisfying his personal choice of work and company? How are the topics or projects selected? Can they be made to fit the syllabus? Which school subjects lend themselves most readily to the method? In practice, do the groups decide their own work and method, or is the purpose of the system sufficiently served if they gain the impression of taking the initiative? How much preparation falls to the teacher, and what special problems should he be able to foresee and solve in advance? Are there simple stratagems for exerting influence invisibly? How are the results of the group work assessed? What are the criteria by which the success of the method as a whole may be judged?

Such questions are answered in terms of principle and by copious illustration, the book being for the most part a record of actual trials in schools. The overall experiment included the training of education students in the Group technique: and the system of student-training is likewise described fully.

One enquiry will occur insistently to all concerned: What evidence is there that 'group work' will yield some important result not

attainable with equal efficiency by other means?

The outstanding claim for the group method, as described, is that it can radically change the relationship between scholars and staff. In particular, where there is a discipline problem, this plan can provide, and in experience has provided, a comprehensive solution. Discipline problems arise generally out of a sense of opposition between pupils and teachers. But it is impossible to do battle with a foe who makes himself, at will, invisible, still less with one who appears within the would-be belligerent ranks as a manifest ally.

In sum, any head of school, or other teacher who is allowed to experiment, will find clear and detailed guidance in this book if he wishes to adjust his teaching system to include Group Work. If he feels, as the authors do, that enduring and creative personal discipline can be formed only through unforced, self-engendered effort to overcome the problems of learning, then one possible method of cultivating this kind of discipline is here presented for his consideration.

It is not, however, the only method. A brief examination of the literature on education in recent years shows that there are at least ten distinct techniques, not counting special ways of approaching particular subjects, which may be applied for varying the task of learning. What Kaye and Rogers have done for their adopted system, some group or experienced editor might achieve, in a series of more condensed statements, for all or most systems. A book is already in being of the kind indicated, for educators concerned with advanced learning. It might well be adopted as a prototype for one dealing with schools. K. G. Collier, Principal of the College of the Venerable Bede, University of Durham, has written a book entitled **New Dimensions in Higher Education** (Longmans, 1968, 18s.), in which five distinct systems of college-level pedagogy are reviewed.

He first considers the method most commonly used in universities, namely, lecturing. This is judged in the light of two 'New Dimensions' implicit in the book's title: the immense increase in the numbers receiving higher education: and the equally remarkable development in tools available for meeting the new need. With the second of these changes in mind, he maintains that lecturing could be made far more engaging, and hence more efficient, through the use of modern means such as TV, screen projection, and recordings. He extols particularly the device, used in the Pennsylvania state university, of creating a building specially for television projections in four directions at once. In this building the instructor is able to address over a thousand students at each session.

The second general method considered is that of individual assignments. Here again the author refers to new aids, the most sophisticated of which is programmed learning, which enables the student to carry out his individual task, and have full assurance as to the accuracy and completeness of his work, without involving the time of any member of staff.

Third in the list is Group Discussion, which includes: (a) seminar types of discussion: (b) report by individuals on a subject selected for group discussion: and (c) free exchange within self-controlling groups, i.e. groups which meet and pursue enquiries entirely without direction from staff members.

Most careful attention is given to what the author describes as the 'Syndicate Method'. A close parallel is to be found in 'Group Work' in Secondary Schools — the subject of the book by Kaye and Rogers. The students divide into small groups, to research into selected aspects of a current topic, for example, population and world food; and in due course they report back to the whole class by means of charts, recordings or roneoed papers. This method has all the advantages in a higher education context that are claimed for it by Kaye and Rogers in the school setting. It encourages a co-operative relationship between staff and students; and it implies a complete change-over from being 'stuffed' with facts and ideas from without, to working on material under the impulse of the learner's own concern and initiative. Collier illustrates his preferred variant of the syndicate method chiefly from experience at the Temple university in Philadelphia.

The fifth educational proposal may be regarded as perhaps less a technique than a re-arrangement of the curriculum to achieve certain social purposes; it consists in the intermingling of practical, extra-mural experience with continuing academic study. The proposed combination is admirably described by reference to the system currently operative in various colleges of education. In these institutions, a substantial part of the curriculum is devoted to school practice, and to contacts with local industry and social administrations. Several educational aims are promoted by these arrangements: the student is enabled to see clearly the practical use of that part of his course which might otherwise seem merely theoretical and academic: and the contacts with business and communal interests will both improve his contact with scholars and enable him to transmit to them a more detailed appreciation of the life and work for which they are being trained.

Man and Responsibility

Somewhat more than fifty years ago there came to a close a period in Britain when it was much less habitual than at present to blame environment for the misdeeds and misfortunes of the British people. A primary place was at that time recognised for personal accountability.

Except in respect of their own kin, ordinary citizens in the more modern setting have for the most part opted out of active responsibility for the training of the young in mutual concern and social regard. We live in a new area of freedom from commitment. Within this area it is impossible for anyone to define the adopted position of any other individual or group, except in the extremely rare instances where statements have been published. On the theme of the present review, it would be difficult indeed to find any clear doctrine of citizen responsibility. Be it said again, the position before 1914 was quite clear. Communities comprising three generations flourished in both town and country; and the seniors in these groups made it plain to the apprentices that it was only second-class citizens who took no responsibility for, among very many other things, eliminating boredom and lack of a sense of purpose from those with less endowment.

There may be some things which a Welfare State, unaided, cannot accomplish. Moral education may be one of them. Undoubtedly this is among the toughest of the assignments so far considered for assumption by the State. No-one can be compelled to engage in the teaching of ethics, and there is little incentive to do so: the chief difficulty is that none of us is perfect; the mere thought of entering the field makes us uneasy. Hypocrisy is the most frightening of all accusations. Let someone else, more obviously fit, tackle this sphere of education — so say we all in our anxiety.

Though this difficulty may justly always persist, there are two approaches to moral education which could help to overcome it. One is to introduce the subject always by open-ended discussion. The other is to treat morality as something positive, like training for a correct cover drive or a long putt. For a full development of the first suggestion the reader might refer again to Elvin's **Education and Contemporary Society** particularly the section on 'values and education' in the later part of the book. There he strongly advocates special courses for training teachers in the conducting of ethical discussion. More recently, several other publications have appeared, providing material highly suitable for use in such training. Outstanding amongst these is **Introduction to Moral Education,** by John Wilson, Norman Williams and Barry Sugarman of the Farmington Trust Unit in Oxford.

The plan of education in this work is positive from beginning to end. It contains not a single negative note: no limitation, no condemnation, no discussion of the errors of our ways, but only a strong focus on the roots from which sound ways may spring. What a relief to the teacher confronting a problem class! From the outset it becomes possible to ignore any inequality in the starting handicaps of the members and dwell exclusively on interesting skills and their creation.

Six skills are singled out as being necessary, in combination, to constitute an individual with a fair moral quotient. Each is exactly defined, and is given a new label to avoid confusion with terms now devalued through long use and

misuse. PHIL is the capacity for **identifying with other people,** to a point at which the feelings and interests of others are accepted by the individual as being **of equal validity** to his own EMP implies **insight** into his own and other people's feelings. GIG refers to the **mastery of factual knowledge** relevant to moral decisions. DIK means the ability to **evolve general rules** on the basis of PHIL, and with due regard to experience and the exercise of EMP and GIG. PHRON is the capacity similarly to **evolve general rules**, but this term is applied exclusively to principles of conduct designed to safeguard the **individual's own efficiency** and wellbeing. KRAT signifies the aptitude — whether through will, presence of mind or other strength of character — to translate the rules conceived through DIK or PHRON into **practical effect.**

These terms can be defined so comprehensively as to make 'moral education' scarcely distinguishable from 'education' as a whole. In other words, this **Introduction** to the subject could be regarded as yet another way of approaching and presenting the macro-theory of education, or, at least, a wide area of such theory. In illustration of the terms here coined, it may be observed that **The Broilerhouse Society** is extremely helpful to the reader's development of EMP and GIG, that is, his power of understanding himself and others, and conditions affecting moral judgement. Two other books here reviewed, **The Environment of Learning,** and **Social Relations in a Secondary School,** deal with the same skills in even greater detail, and are likely to add a new sensitivity and dimension to the reader's PHIL, especially if he is a teacher. For those who are concerned with KRAT, there is much of special value in **Group Work in Secondary Schools** — and in **New Dimensions in Higher Education**, particularly where it describes the 'syndicate' system.

As a minimum, it is to be acknowledged that the Farmington Trust Unit have demonstrated that Moral Education is to be ranked as both an academic and an applied subject. From now on, the problem of how to develop the skills for fair human behaviour can be discussed in an orderly manner, with the prospect of general agreement on the nature and range of the required skills. This is a landmark.

Perhaps even more important, the subject has been defined in such a way that people of widely differing metaphysical beliefs can work on it together. In due course there should be agreement on the means of testing the degree of development of the skills, and assigning a moral quotient to individuals and communities. The only admissible difference between any two plans for moral education would seem to rest in the **nature of the stimulus** on which the authorities rely for recruiting and inspiring teachers. As a beginning, it would be valuable to discover, from statistical enquiry, what proportion of teachers now engaged voluntarily or professionally in conducting ethical discussion derive their own motive from traditional sources. For practical record it would be of interest to know, further, what proportion make use of ancient or conventional books of wisdom. Whatever the result may be, this reviewer would not wish to retract for a moment the belief that the Farmington Trust Unit have established a landmark, in giving fresh vitality and logic to the discussion of practical ethics.

1. I am much indebted to other members of Education Services for helpful comment on this paper. J.R.B.

Progressive Education: From Arcady to Academe

A History of the Progressive Education Association

Patricia Albjerg Graham (Teachers College Press: New York, 1967)

This is an extremely well-documented and detailed account of the rise and fall of the Progressive Education Association of America. Its scope is limited since, unlike **The Story of the New Education,** it does not try to cover the progressive education movement as a whole or to describe any of its outstanding schools and experiments. Nevertheless it is a valuable addition to our knowledge of the P.E.A, which eventually became the N.E.F.'s representative in the States.

It is a sad story that Mrs Graham has to tell: how the initial enthusiasm gradually faded, and how the Association, after exercising a profound influence on American education between the two World Wars, became more and more isolated and inturned until, after a last effort in which its Commissions produced a number of excellent reports, it failed to revive its fortunes by a change of name and the adoption of a number of **ad hoc** schemes. At the end its membership, which had at one time topped the 10,000 mark, had dwindled to a mere 600, although we thereby exclude the library subscriptions, which continued automatically to be paid, in the way such things do, in order that full sets of the Association's magazine should be kept on the shelves.

What went wrong? Like the new education movement as a whole, the progressive education movement started spontaneously in a number of different schools. The Francis Parker School, Dewey's School in Chicago, Meriam's at the University of Missouri and Patty Hill's Kindergarten in New York, were all private experimental schools. Although there were some significant attempts before 1914 (as in the Gary Schools) to adapt education to meet the needs of immigrant and under-privileged children, by the end of the First World War the emphasis had shifted, and progressive education had become largely identified with schools demanding fees. It is true that the Winnetka experiment was carried out in public (i.e. state) schools. But these drew their pupils from the rich suburbs of Chicago, a clientele by no means typical of the public schools of America as a whole. This had an important effect upon the thinking of members of the P.E.A., who tended (unconsciously no doubt) to take for granted that there was an intellectual and cultural background in the home upon which the schools could build. Thus the Association paid little attention to the children of immigrants and their need for an introduction to the American way of life; nor had it any real concern for the education of the underprivileged, whether black or white, which is still one of the major educational problems of America today.

But something else went wrong. The P.E.A. was founded in 1919 by a group of idealists for whom progressive education was a cause, for whom, too, the word 'spiritual' had a definite meaning, as it did for the three original directors of the N.E.F., since it represented the belief that 'there are infinite potentialities within children by reason of their roots.' (Mrs Ensor). As this deeper meaning was lost, progressive education tended to become more and more a question of methods and curriculum reform, and less and less an attempt to stir these deeper springs of human life. The child-centred school became a slogan which had no reference to anything beyond the child, and the creative powers of children were thought of chiefly in connection with the arts. It was only at the end of his career that Harold Rugg, the most active representative of the humanistic trend in the P.E.A., came to realise, from his contacts with the artistic colony of Westchester, that the imagination of the artist and the intuitions of the mystic come from the same source which lies beyond the conscious life of either of them. This is the spiritual world with its insights and its drives. When contact with this world is lost, no educational movement can retain its initial impetus, and its spirit soon evaporates in a purely technical consideration of curriculum and methods.

The early years of the P.E.A. were struggling ones, but with the generous financial support of two or three wealthy women the Association survived, and by the late twenties had come to act as a centralising force for the progressive movement as a whole. Its magazine, Progressive Education, helped by a two years grant from Mrs Coonley, was finely produced and immediately attracted widespread attention. It had found, too, in its second president, John Dewey, an educational philosopher of international standing. Mrs Graham lists as the achievements of this early progressive movement its insistence upon child-study, vocational education, community-centred schools, educational research and a flexible curriculum. These reforms have lasted, and it may rightly be said that the movement was largely responsible for the improvement of American education between 1919 and 1955, the P.E.A. acting as its spearhead and being remarkably successful in its publicizing of these new educational

practices.

But there was one problem the Association never faced, that of the teachers themselves. It spoke of the right methods. Yet there can be no right method in itself. Teachers differ in character and type and should use the methods that suit them — not those considered ideally the best. Again, methods that may succeed under certain conditions may not succeed under others. To what absurd lengths, for instance, the discussion method can be carried, those will know who have watched Prof. Kilpatrick using it (ostensibly) with 150 students in front of him!

As regards the curriculum, the attitude of the Association became more and more one-sided. Education is rightly required to provide children with the three 'R's' and the knowledges and skills needed by our complex technical civilisation. It has also to introduce children to the traditions and behaviour patterns of society, a duty particularly necessary in the States, which has for so long acted as a melting pot for children coming from the most disparate cultural backgrounds. But not only did the P.E.A. fail to realise how fundamental these functions are to good schooling, but under the influence of Counts and Harold Rugg it decided that the schools should be used as a means of social reconstruction, and Rugg published a series of Social Study manuals with this end in view. Much ink was spilt in arguing whether this was indoctrination or not. But it was clear that such studies were being introduced with a political objective. In passing it may be noted also that they could hardly be used to advantage by the majority of teachers, who had no political training and often no political interests at all. Thus Curriculum reform became equated with political action and ceased to be child-centred in any admissible sense of the word.

The P.E.A. in fact was no longer concentrating on acting as a clearing house for new ideas and experiments, but was seeking to impose its views upon the educational world; and in order to clarify them it spent much time in attempting to work out a philosophy of education. The documents that resulted were woolly in the extreme and satisfied no one. Perhaps it was not realised that no agreement as to the intellectual framework of education can be a substitute for the continuing search which is the spirit and life blood of all progressive movements. This applies as much to Dewey's philosophy of education as to any other attempt to square the circle. For reality is unique, and children and teachers, schools and methods, are necessarily individual, and cannot be regarded as examples of this or that philosophy of education.

One of the last and most ambitious efforts of the Association was the setting up of three commissions — on The Relation of School and College (the so-called Eight-Year Study), on Secondary Education, and on Human Relations. They each issued valuable reports that were the predecessors of much research work later on. But Pearl Harbour intervened, and with America's entry into the Second World War they fell dead. After the war no more large grants from Foundations, such had financed the Commissions, were available, and the Association found itself faced with a situation in which many other educational bodies had sprung up and its old pioneering rôle had disappeared. When it was finally wound up in 1955 it was but a husk of its old self, all life having finally gone out of it.

A few words should be added as to the relations between the Association and the New Educational Fellowship. When Mrs Ensor was invited by the P.E.A. to lecture in the States in the 1920's, she hoped to get the Association to act as the American branch of the Fellowship. But there was considerable opposition to this among its leaders, some of whom feared that Mrs Ensor's driving force would end in its being swallowed by the N.E.F. However, after the astounding success of the Fellowship's Conference at Elsinore, things looked very much brighter, and in 1932 agreement was come to and the P.E.A. became affiliated to the world movement. But isolationism was still a powerful force within the Association, and with certain signal exceptions its members paid scant attention to what was happening outside their own country. Thus the healthy exchange of ideas and practices from other lands and civilisations, which has helped to keep the N.E.F.

alive, never took root within the P.E.A. which eventually even isolated itself from the main stream of educational life in the States.

Wyatt Rawson.

Two impressions

"Lights up" — a scientific entertainment at the Mermaid Theatre, devised by Josephine Wilson, lyrics by Nicholas Stuart Gray, music by Roger Webb, designed by Adrian Vaux, costumes by Sheelagh Killeen, Lighting by David Adams. Scientific consultant Colin Ronan, M.Sc., F.R.A.S.

The performance given by the Molecule Club at the Mermaid Theatre was quite an experience. As a focus of attention, it beats any pantomime, since so many of these performances have long periods which are quite beyond a young child's interest and comprehension. Watching the children by whom I was surrounded, it seemed that their concentration on the happenings on the stage was exceptional, and it was interesting to note that the breaks between the experiments, when light relief was afforded by slapstick comedy, were the occasions for fidgetting and looking round and that all eyes promptly focussed on the stage when the experiments were resumed.

The idea of this Club, which is the brainchild of Sir Bernard and Lady Miles, is to present in dramatic form some of the elementary facts of science with an idea of inspiring the children to look at science as a fascinating, human and amusing subject, and not as a dreary series of facts quite unrelated to ordinary life.

The youthfulness of the cast gives the impression of older brothers and sisters entertaining the younger members of the family. The music is catchy and the audience participation is sustained throughout with enthusiasm rather than the near-hysteria which often occurs in performances intended for children. Progressive teachers are well aware of the desirability of making science approachable and part of everyday life, a discovery of the world about one, but all teachers are not progressive. I am not sure that the work of the Club, although it may be open to some criticism, is not doing as valuable a service to certain teachers as it is to the children. It is an experiment which is well worth continuing and improving: unfortunately funds are lacking and those who have seen and understood what is being attempted at the Mermaid can best show their appreciation by sending a contribution to the Molecule Club Trust, which sponsors the work.

Yvonne Moyse.

The Mermaid Theatre Molecule Club

The most prominent aspect of the demonstration was that of communication between the actors and the children. This was exceedingly good with the children showing signs of being with the actors. They appeared to understand what was happening and, as a result of this, had no hesitation in either answering questions or in helping when invited on to the stage. One boy who was asked to participate came forward naturally and showed little sign of apprehension.

This demonstration had little in common with the run of the mill classwork usually associated with schools. An example of this was the application of coloured lights to the water in the internal refraction experiments. Techniques such as this gave a greater interest to the children. The experiments themselves were very practical and the information content of them, given beforehand, was excellent. Evidence of the interest was that there was no sign of fidgetting or inattentiveness on the part of the audience.

The slapstick side of the demonstration was a little overdone in places, I thought and made the show appear more like a pantomime at times. However the idea of putting a little in, I thought, was good as it tended to break the demonstration up rather like a coffee break does at work; but the concentration of slapstick proved to be a slight embarrassment.

Introduction of the calypsos was a tremendous success with the children, who had no difficulty in pronouncing the more difficult words of the exceptionally good lyrics.

A. I. Sutherland.

29/1/70

Religion and Slow Learners

K. E. Hyde
SCM Press; 30s.

For years we have known that 10% of third year secondary pupils are below the level of average top juniors. Yet in spite of the moral, social and economic issues involved, slow learners are still largely neglected. Dr. Hyde's book is about religious education but includes a straightforward account of the factors involved in 'backwardness' and summarises research on the problem.

Schools consulted agree that the main problem (in RE at least) is lack of reading ability. Yet many teachers appear content to use material designed for average children. Even where allowance is made for the limited intellectual potential of the slow learner, due weight may not be given to the interests and attitudes of the early school leaver, looking forward to earning his own living and already well past puberty.

Dr. Hyde's own research among 586 junior and 672 secondary pupils concentrated on testing insight into phrases of the Lord's Prayer and simple ethical teaching from the gospels. (Some readers may be surprised to find Matthew 7:13, 14 included in the second category.) He concludes that 'at no period in their secondary education do the slow-learning pupils exceed the level of conceptual ability in religious understanding measured by these tests that is achieved by average older junior school children, and in a test with greater emphasis on verbal understanding their performance scarcely exceeded that of younger junior children.' Moral education presents similar problems; it also is 'at a disadvantage because of a similar lack of experience of the language of ethics.'

Dr. Hyde's suggestions are helpful and sound though far from revolutionary. He stresses the importance of relating religious education to the pupil's background and experience. Work on themes should give due weight to a religious way of approaching experience — an element significantly omitted from the Schools Council Working Paper No. 11. Creativity and emotional involvement are essential, and the uses of various media are discussed. Social service and residential courses are valuable for both religious and moral education.

The book is sub-titled 'A Research Study.' However, while the research recorded is interesting and helpful, the approach is not at all specialised. Students, young teachers and others daunted by the difficulty of teaching slow learners will find here a useful introduction and a variety of possible classroom techniques.

P. Cousins.

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Further details and application forms are obtainable from the Department of Social Work and Administration (Certificate in Residential Work Course), University of Bristol, 6 Berkeley Square, Bristol BS8 IHQ.

Let's Teach Them Right

ed. Christopher Macy
Pemberton Books 35s. (cloth) 20s. (paper).

Here are eighteen essays on aspects of religious and moral education. Most have appeared in periodicals (including two from the **New Era**) and among the distinguished list of contributors stand such names as Peters, Loukes, Hirst, and Elvin. After an introduction by H. J. Blackman there follows four pieces about religious education and two on the comparative study of religion. Two dealing with the relationship between religious and moral education lead to four discussing moral education and a reprint of the pamphlet recently produced by Howard Maratt and James Hemming. The book ends with four contributions on various related topics.

The contributors include Christians and secularists but the viewpoint throughout is what the introduction describes as 'progressive' (in spite of which a slightly querulous note is heard from two or three contributors.) Thus no attention is paid to the fundamentalist wing among Christians or secularists — although such play a considerable role in public controversy. In general, the complexity of the problems involved is not underestimated and most of the writers seem anxious to do justice to the human significance of religion while fully committed to an 'open' approach. In the words of the preface, 'the relationship between religious and moral education is not one of hostility but of tension.'

Within its selected limits, this is the best survey available of what is coming to be regarded as a 'central' position in the RE controversy. It contains material (e.g. Professor Hirst's essay on 'Morals, Religion and the Maintained School') essential for students and others who wish to study the educational arguments, but hitherto difficult to obtain. The paperback edition, in particular, should have a wide circulation.

P. Cousins.

Christmas

ed. Kenyon Calthorp
Pergamon; Price 30s.

In its 230 pages this anthology of prose and verse in celebration of Christmas offers a wide range of material, from medieval carols to 'O What a Lovely War.' It will be useful as a library book and as a source of pieces for reading aloud. Prospective buyers may wish to know that seventy pages are taken by 'A Christmas Carol' and seventeen more by another Dickens Christmas story, totalling well over a third of the book. There is a good balance between ancient and modern, human and divine. We have the whole of the 'Wakefield Second Shepherds' Play' as well as Terence Tiller's 'Birth of Christ.' An opportunity has been missed, however, by the omission of any sermon material — an important aspect of and response to Christmas which includes some magnificent and moving prose. Given Eliot's 'Journey of the Magi', why not some Lancelot Andrewes, for example?

P. Cousins.

'. . . but since no man can ever know enough all advice is prejudice'

Dannie Abse.

An Effective Mathematics Pedagogy

Theodore H. MacDonald

No teacher at any level or in any nation in the world today is unaware of the fact that for nearly two decades, the teaching and content of school mathematics syllabi has undergone intensive scrutiny and drastic change. While similar activity has been true of other curricular areas, changes in the methodology of mathematics teaching have created the most impact on the public mind. This is evident even at the level of popular humour. For instance, while I was in Prague in July 1966, talking informally with a group of school boys (aged 9-11), a number of wry comments and jokes emerged, centering upon the problems faced by today's fathers trying to do their sons' mathematics homework. I could not help but be forcibly struck by the fact that only 6 weeks previously I had been listening to an American group of similarly aged youngsters in San Francisco, passing almost identical comments!

That the various committees designing and distributing these newer syllabi have done a reasonably good job of public relations, explaining to the lay community the advantages of "new math", etc., is clear enough. It is also evident that large numbers of school teachers are open-minded to these changes. What **does** worry me is that the mathematical community (of which I am a member) has not spoken out nearly loudly enough to the teachers about the nature of mathematics and the place that school syllabi, old or new, should occupy in representing mathematical thought.

It goes without saying that the adjective "new" in describing more recent mathematical syllabi is new — either in the sense of consisting entirely of contemporary findings in mathematics or in the sense that the material presented has never before been in the school syllabus. When we talk of "new math", what we really mean is a "new methodology" in the teaching of mathematics — new ways of inculcating in pupils an appreciation and formal command of mathematical procedures. Having said this, one must go on to say that, although the older

syllabi manifested certain expositional weaknesses (some of them gravely serious), they were **not** the "anti-mathematic" that many enthusiasts of new syllabi would have us believe. I have met numerous classroom teachers, both at Primary and Secondary level, who having become familiar with one or more of the new mathematics programms, tend to believe that the aims of mathematics education in school cannot be realized without such programmes.

As a mathematician, I am rather alarmed by this attitude and would like to set out a statement of the **aims** of teaching mathematics in school and to show that the realization of these aims is almost independent of whether the syllabus itself is old or new.

Mathematicians of the day were just as involved in the creation and establishment of the old traditional syllabi as were (and are) the mathematicians of today in establishing the new. Admittedly the former were mathematicians of another day, and the purposes of mathematical education in the schools of that day were more directly vocational than is the case now, but the fact remains that even the most down to earth exercise in shop-arithmetic exemplifies some important and enduring aspect of mathematical thought. Moreover, no teacher who is vitally concerned with the aesthetic and intellectual content of mathematics can ever exhaust the opportunities for creative and challenging pedagogy in any established mathematical syllabus.

In conducting work-shops for teachers, I have repeatedly found that if a teacher feels restricted by what he regards as the "pedestrian nature of the program", then he either does not know enough mathematics and/or he does not understand the raison-d'etre for mathematics in the school curriculum at all. Of course, the first alternative is true of all of us. Can any teacher ever say that he knows enough about his subject areas to stop learning about it? I am more concerned with the second alternative. A lack of appreciation of the **aims** of mathematics teaching in the primary and secondary schools is so prevalent among teachers that I feel compelled to suggest that there are four fundamental aims to be met, and that these aims can and should be realized **independently** of whether or not the syllabus is modern!

These aims are:

1. **Pleasure:** We want children to be able to share in the aesthetic pleasure and fascination that mathematics has held for Man since the beginnings of civilization. At first men's conjectures about mathematical truths were made largely in response to observations of physical actuality, eclipses of the sun, periodicity of the seasons, etc. Starting about 2,500 years ago in Greece, men began to make mental models of physical situations and then to abstract salient properties (axioms) from these models. The axioms, together with a few basic (undefined) terms and many defined terms were then used to create mathematics. This is unique to the western tradition and mathematics remain even today (maybe **particularly** today) as the most purely "intellectual" (more independent of the physical environment than any other discipline, even poetry) activity engaged in by people. In this way, civilised man has erected an intricate edifice of thought, continuous throughout western history and as old as classical antiquity. Moreover, work on this edifice continues, additions being made at a more rapid pace now than at any other time in the history of mathematics. Even at the primary level, children who have been acquainted with this wonderful idea are driven to enquire as to the ultimate purpose (if it has any) of this edifice of thought. Of course, such questions are unanswerable, but children can be impressed with the fact that in every generation there have always been men who have felt driven to explore and discover new mathematical phenomena as a satisfactory end in itself and without any practical result in view.

Every child has the right to know about this aspect of his nature as a member of the human family. Indeed, the older mathematical syllabi with their emphases on Euclidean Geometry and seventeenth century algebraic processes, are even more apropos than are more recent syllabi with respect to cultivating this sense of our heritage of mathematical thought.

2. **Utility:** We surely want children to recognize that mathematics can be used to solve problems. To some extent, at least, we can equip even the most dull child with this inherent power of

mathematical thought. Basically, mathematics enables us to **imagine** physical situations, divested of extraneous incidentals, so that by purely mental manipulations we can predict a real outcome. Ultimately, of course, we would like children to be able to do this entirely abstractly, without an intervening vicarious experience. However, many teachers disallow this vicarious stage too early in a child's mathematical growth. It is a vital component to any real understanding of the processes of mathematical thought and avoids the intellect-stunting practice of rote-memorization of "type" problems. Children love mysteries, and the puzzle-solving instinct is present in all of us. Any mathematics curriculum can be exploited for the opportunities it affords to solve interesting and relevant problems at all grade levels.

3. **Information:** Day-to-day life, even in agarian communities, envolves many occasions requiring the instantaneous recall of the results of certain well-known mathematical algorisms. We want children to know and be able to recall these facts at will. Obviously, the facts of positive interger multiplication up to 10 × 10 falls into this category, as do the sums and differences of all positive integers up to 10 and the differences only of all positive integers from 10 to 18, all of these in base ten numeration. This is not much to ask and its acquisition should never dominate mathematics class-time, but it **does** require drill. Whether the syllabus being followed is ancient (a very relative term) or modern (a definition depending upon the age of the teacher), the enterprising teacher can create lively drill sessions by employing games and other devices. My 6-year old son would never memorize his addition facts as his teacher expected him to do, but he quickly enough acquired them when I taught him to play Poker. He was only too glad to "play cards with Daddy" instead of drilling his flash- cards, little realizing that the same end was thereby served.

Perpetuation: As the final aim of mathematical instruction, I would recognize the need to insure that mathematical thought will continue to grow. In a very real sense, every teacher in any subject area, is a caretaker of the future. We do our utmost to ensure that children are aware of their "historical experience" as humans and we try not to neglect their vocational training in order that they can do their part to "keep society running", so to speak. However, in the pressure to meet with the requirements of examination schedules, we often forget that all of the discoveries have **not** been made and that **some** of our pupils must ultimately add to what is already known. Otherwise, formal education is failing civilization!

With respect to mathematics, this fourth aim is most eloquently realized by the newer syllabi, with their emphases on proof, logic and reasoning. However, even the most conservative syllabus has scope in it for inductive thought on the part of the pupil, **if the teacher is not too dogmatic to encourage it.**

The mathematical community, indeed society as a whole, places a heavy responsibility on the shoulders of the class-room mathematics teacher. Such being the case, we in the fields of mathematics and education have every obligation to make his task more realizable with new programs, better equipment, etc. In the meantime, the practising mathematics teacher must be prepared to teach the best in mathematics, using any syllabus he is given. To stand about "waiting for the revolution" is to forsake one's calling and to inflict injury on the young minds in one's charge.

The Work of the Community Relations Commission in the Field of Education

1. The Commission was set up by Parliament under the Race Relations Act passed in November 1968. It took over the work of the former, non-statutory, National Committee for Commonwealth Immigrants.

2. Its terms of reference are set out in Section 25(3) and (4) of the Act —

"(3) It shall be the duty of the Commission —
(a) to encourage the establishment of, and assist others to take steps to secure the establishment of, harmonious community relations and to co-ordinate on a national basis the measures adopted for that purpose by others; and

(b) to advise the Secretary of State on any matter referred to him and to make recommendations to him on any matter which the Commission consider should be brought to his attention.

"(4) For the purpose of discharging their functions under sub-section (3)(a) above the Commission may —

(a) establish services for giving advice on community relations to local authorities and other local organisations concerned therewith and for collecting information with respect to community relations;

(b) provide courses of training in connection with community relations; and

(c) arrange or promote the holding of conferences on matters connected with community relations".

Advisory Committee on Education

1. The Commission attaches great importance to education as a key factor in the development of harmonious community relations. In this field are experienced some of the most urgent needs. Accordingly the Commission has appointed an Advisory Committee on Education which met for the first time on 13 June 1969 (Chairman, Sir Ronald Gould).

2. The Committee has itself appointed four sub-committees to deal with particular aspects of its work

I. Teacher Training and Curriculum Development Group
Principal: Mr P. K. C. Millins
Principal, Edge Hill College of Education;

II. Linguistic Needs of Immigrant Population Group
Chairman: Miss Jocelyn Barrow
Lecturer, Furzedown College of Education
Commission Member;

III. Post-School Education in Community Relations Group
Chairman: Mrs Anna Chataway
Part-time lecturer
Commission Member;

IV. Administrative and LEA Liaison Group
Chairman: Sir Lionel Russell
formerly Chief Education Officer, Birmingham
Chairman, Secretary of State's Committee on Adult Education.

Community Relations Commission
Russell Square House
Russell Square
London WC1
TELEPHONE: 01.636.8412

August 1969

Editor's New Decade Greetings to all our readers and contributors.

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Edward Lear on the Two Sons of Walter Congreeve, to one of whom he gave drawing lessons 'They are the nicest little coves possible'. Hubert Congreeve 'These Lessons were some of the most delightful experiences of my young days'.

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Our February Issue will contain an appropriate follow up of Wyatt Rawson's Review in this issue 'Progressive Education: From Arcady to Academe' which traces an American Experience.

The February article is by R. Sinha, Lecturer, Chorley College of Education on the Influence of the Exotic on Progressive Education. An aspect of the Romantic Tradition.'

This contributor finds a lack of source material on Progressive Education for his students. Any offers from other writers?

Directory of Schools - Continued

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The Influence of the Exotic on Progressive Education. An Aspect of the Romantic Tradition

R. Sinha, Lecturer, Chorley College of Education.

Progressive education like other Messianic and Utopian Movements contains within its ranks men and women who come to it with a variety of religious and political persuasions. Its ideology has been enriched by scientists who have investigated the psyche, growth processes, and human institutions: by the reconstructionists who suggest that the schools should take leadership in building a new society and by those who stand in the Romantic tradition who are the especial concern of this paper.[1]

The romantic image is, it is claimed, endowed with a subtle sense of mystery and these educators echo Keats when he said, 'whatever the Imagination seizes on as Beauty is Truth'. Certainly they are motivated by an intellectual curiosity which refuses to be restricted to a given time or culture for they have not been afraid to dally in realms forbidden to the orthodox. Thus Arundale and Ensor found the mainstay of their inspiration in the tenets of that most esoteric of religious bodies, the theosophical society. Elmhirst was influenced by the lectures and school of the Indian poet Rabindranath Tagore.[2] When talking of the Indian culture he might well have agreed with Rugg's verdict, 'I have long felt that although its contemplative wisdom had long been ignored by the west it was of profound significance and must be critically and appreciatively studied. I have assumed that while each region holds the key to the doors of conception there has been a tendency for each to use only its own special key.'[3]

Because his theme is imbued with a sense of the dignity of man the romantic recoils from the methods used to socialise the child in our society. Recalling the terrors of his own childhood or noting the practices in our schools he has become convinced that children are called on to pay too high a price in guilt and shame for the receipt of an identity.[4] He avers that the child is born good and should be made better by his school experiences. His hope is that Societies built by men so ennobled will be freed from the hatred and strife that beset us today, replacing these evils by the rule of happiness and brotherly love. However, the romantics agree that neither individuals nor specific institutions are basically responsible for the erosion of the higher and truer self of man. Rather they blame the whole ethos of the West which refuses to contemplate using the 'Eastern key to the door of conception.' For them there is, today, too great a stress on the materialistic attitudes of living, and too severe a reliance on the methodology of science.[5]

Jung, writing as a scientist, makes this point in his Commentary to the Golden Flower, 'scientific method must serve: it errs when it usurps a throne . . . It is part and parcel of our knowledge and obscures our insight only when it holds that the understanding given by it is the only one there is. The East has taught us a more profound and higher understanding, that is, understanding through life.' And educationalists like Herbert Read have suggested ways that teachers may use this broader vision in their creative work in schools.

This article sets out to explore how this romantic inspiration has influenced the progressive ideology, affected schools, and altered the methods employed in the training of teachers.

THE FAITH OF THE THEOSOPHISTS

The faith that inspired Arundule and Ensor had its beginnings in London on a summer's evening in 1851 when Blavatski met the Spiritual Being, the Master, who directed her to found that universal brotherhood which has become known as the Theosophic society.[7]

The masters of theosophy gave their own answers to the fundamental questions of Kant . . . What is man? What ought I to do? What may I hope?

To the first they said that man is the reflection of the manifest God. Locked in the seven sheaths of the physical body and within the astral body each one of us contains an

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The Influence of the Exotic on Progressive Education. An Aspect of the Romantic Tradition

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Progressive education like other Messianic and Utopian Movements contains within its ranks men and women who come to it with a variety of religious and political persuasions. Its ideology has been enriched by scientists who have investigated the psyche, growth processes, and human institutions: by the reconstructionists who suggest that the schools should take leadership in building a new society and by those who stand in the Romantic tradition who are the especial concern of this paper.[1]

The romantic image is, it is claimed, endowed with a subtle sense of mystery and these educators echo Keats when he said, 'whatever the Imagination seizes on as Beauty is Truth'. Certainly they are motivated by an intellectual curiosity which refuses to be restricted to a given time or culture for they have not been afraid to dally in realms forbidden to the orthodox. Thus Arundale and Ensor found the mainstay of their inspiration in the tenets of that most esoteric of religious bodies, the theosophical society. Elmhirst was influenced by the lectures and school of the Indian poet Rabindranath Tagore.[2] When talking of the Indian culture he might well have agreed with Rugg's verdict, 'I have long felt that although its contemplative wisdom had long been ignored by the west it was of profound significance and must be critically and appreciatively studied. I have assumed that while each region holds the key to the doors of conception there has been a tendency for each to use only its own special key.'[3]

Because his theme is imbued with a sense of the dignity of man the romantic recoils from the methods used to socialise the child in our society. Recalling the terrors of his own childhood or noting the practices in our schools he has become convinced that children are called on to pay too high a price in guilt and shame for the receipt of an identity.[4] He avers that the child is born good and should be made better by his school experiences. His hope is that Societies built by men so ennobled will be freed from the hatred and strife that beset us today, replacing these evils by the rule of happiness and brotherly love. However, the romantics agree that neither individuals nor specific institutions are basically responsible for the erosion of the higher and truer self of man. Rather they blame the whole ethos of the West which refuses to contemplate using the 'Eastern key to the door of conception.' For them there is, today, too great a stress on the materialistic attitudes of living, and too severe a reliance on the methodology of science.[5]

Jung, writing as a scientist, makes this point in his Commentary to the Golden Flower, 'scientific method must serve: it errs when it usurps a throne . . . It is part and parcel of our knowledge and obscures our insight only when it holds that the understanding given by it is the only one there is. The East has taught us a more profound and higher understanding, that is, understanding through life.' And educationalists like Herbert Read have suggested ways that teachers may use this broader vision in their creative work in schools.

This article sets out to explore how this romantic inspiration has influenced the progressive ideology, affected schools, and altered the methods employed in the training of teachers.

THE FAITH OF THE THEOSOPHISTS

The faith that inspired Arundule and Ensor had its beginnings in London on a summer's evening in 1851 when Blavatski met the Spiritual Being, the Master, who directed her to found that universal brotherhood which has become known as the Theosophic society.[7]

The masters of theosophy gave their own answers to the fundamental questions of Kant . . . What is man? What ought I to do? What may I hope?

To the first they said that man is the reflection of the manifest God. Locked in the seven sheaths of the physical body and within the astral body each one of us contains an

inner self. This is the true self: it is eternal and one with the self of the universe. This self of the universe is in everything and everything in him, so in man there exists infinity which cannot die but is born and reborn. At first man is without moral sense and dominated by his base desires — robbing and killing and being, in his turn, robbed and killed. Gradually, in his continuous rebirths, he sees his wrongs result only in further wrongs whereas his whole being enjoys the results of his dawning love. Murder and theft cause only unhappiness in his future while love and kindness cause happiness. Slowly the spirit acquires a conscience which, weak at first, is slowly strengthened. Pain in one existence becomes strength in the next so eventually one may hope for perfection.

Man, the reflection of God and yearning for perfection, must learn to live the life of pure brotherhood. Condemning one who has wronged you can only result in hate: and this hate will be visited on all humanity, delaying the day all will be perfect. Theosophists, extending the third law of Newton to the realm of human activity, believe that the act of condemnation will result in the reaction of enmity which will be visited upon mankind in any generation or in any century. A cruel judgement once passed will increase from life to life leading eventually to anger and violence and causing more and more suffering. While harshness goes against the laws of nature, charity, on the contrary, runs with the natural law of harmony, wiping out the opposition of others, expending enmity and increasing Brotherly Love.

To Kant's second question 'what ought I to do?' the theosophist answers, 'practice charity living the life of Brotherhood: as Blavatski said, "you have no karma of your own but the karma of each one of us is the karma of all . . .".' Until men learn this lesson they continue in ignorance, in insanity, in the dread they have of their own inner powers: misery and trouble will be their lot. A man cannot be hurt by others for the hands that are raised against him are those of puppets sent to collect the debt he owes.

For the theosophist the only religion is the Truth. Practising charity they were not concerned to found a new religion or oust an old one. Rather, they pointed a way of life, calling men of all faiths to work under the one banner for the desired end. And to the theosophist there could be no better result than the declared aim of the New Education — to prepare the child to seek and realise in his own life the supremacy of the spirit. This idea brought together men and women of twenty-two nations to hear Mrs Ensor, founder of the N.E.F. and secretary to the Theosophic Fraternity of Education, say 'we meet without dogma, system, technique or country . . . to liberate the divine forces in every child in the world.'

Beatrice Ensor, named by Rugg 'the beautiful, wonderful evangelist of the new living school', believing as a theosophist that the mind of man is capable of bringing about results through the minds of the men about them enjoined therefore 'that each become a crusader for the new education.'

The theosophist might well claim that the living schools they founded have become centres from which the spirit radiates. For most progressive schools practise brotherhood in a real sense in their rule of self-government. In their councils children and staff meet to discuss matters that concern all. They meet in a true democracy, a unity without a sub-structure of slavery, where each voice is heard whether it be that of teacher, senior pupil or youngest child. And by this means the living school becomes a caring school. Selfish competition disappears and is replaced by co-operation in which each person puts himself equally at the service of the community. The theosophist may claim to have created the spirit which has led to the present practice of sending pupils out into the community to work for the sick, the young, the helpless and the aged.

These achievements have not been accomplished easily.

The release of the spiritual powers in each child can only be achieved by a severe discipline, not the discipline of the nag or the scold but the discipline of charity. It is difficult to replace retribution by love, easier to demand

a tooth for a tooth and an eye for an eye than to turn the other cheek. But slowly, with the aid of the patient teacher, the councils do not merely punish the offender but rather seek to protect him. Often, it is claimed, the whole school society undertakes to repay an injured child so that the thief is saved from the indignity of discovery. Shame must be removed, not by the repeated 'don't do this' and 'stop that' of the traditionalist but by the genuine love that raises each neighbour upwards.

The realisation of this spirit informs and directs the Progressive today. That he has not heard of the theosophic movement is unimportant for, believing as they do, they may say that it is the influence of Arundale and Ensor which guides much of the best work in our schools today.[8]

THE DOORS OF CONCEPTION[9]

The fourth question that Kant addressed to searchers after truth is, 'what can I know?'

To this romantic educators like Rugg and Tagore answer, 'in the quiet mind of the school of freedom . . . everything.'

For them the human personality continuously creates and recreates the universe. The freed imagination with its heightened aesthetic sensibility sees afresh the stuff of everyday life, blending it to produce new rhythms of sound and new harmonies of colour.

This concept of freedom is central to the romantic argument. His traditionalist opponents use it to launch their most severe attacks on his position. They constantly seek to have him limit and define it, to tame its structure so that, like a log that was once a living tree it can be rolled from classroom to classroom.

But the progressive, like the artist-scientist, knows both the dangers and merits of giving a strict definition of any living concept. Initially it offers clarity making data easier to manipulate. But this clarity is not the most important aspect of truth. The task is, rather, to weave facts into a unified theory setting off one against the other so that the whole convinces by its inner truth.

Seeking to avoid the pitfall of definition without sacrificing clarity the progressive has offered these examples of the concept of the freed creative imagination.

The poet realises it when he comprehends the harmony of nature.

The community realises it when it works together without self interest on an agreed project.

The child realises it when the teacher has the wisdom to encourage him to see things in his own way without forcing an adult view too early.

The freedom the romantic seeks is the liberation of the inner self of man. It is not an external destination reached after an easy, well sign-posted journey, but an inward process that causes turmoil when it occurs.

The man or woman of the liberated spirit has emerged into the light of the true significance of life.

It may have come as a sudden flash. It may have beckoned at the end of a long tunnel toward which he fumbled and groped, clinging to objects in his path believing them to be his salvation. But in the light he sees his error, now a pattern emerges where before there were discrete units: the world of the It is transformed into the unity of the Thou.

Pessimists have argued that this illumination is not for everyone but only for the elect. They say that Utopias cannot be brought about unless the vast network of interlocking systems which is western civilisation is swept away. But teachers of simple faith continue to strive to do what they can toward the betterment of man. They fashion one part of the system and influence all. But, as Rugg warned, they must beware the gimmick.

The cure for the soul must not be confused with drugs that act on the body. There is a danger that the creative concept, like intelligence before it, will be abused by administrators of small insight.

If tests are formulated which purport to measure creativity and the scores derived from these tests are used to segregate and divide children: if schools are established to cater only for the highly creative child, then education will be emaciated rather than enriched. A permanent damage will have been done to gain a temporary improvement in its outward appearance.

But if the tests and theorems of creativity are used to create suitable conditions in all our schools then the lives of all children can be enhanced. Especially, if teacher training can be rethought with their aid, the child who is a natural diverger will not need to be protected from his teachers but the potential of all will be developed to the full.

TEACHER TRAINING . . . A ROMANTIC VIEW

Because he feels that society is the locus of the troubles that plague man and because he knows that within each individual there is a great untapped source of talent the romantic would have his teachers versed in the proer study of man . . . human psychology.

But the schools within which the majority of our children spend their time are staffed by teachers with, at best, a half knowledge of psychology. This has been gained from second hand accounts of the behaviour of hungry rats in mazes and pigeons playing ping-pong. A little more useful (or a little less harmful) are the descriptions of conscious problem solving behaviour and the statistical search for the factors of the human mind. Added together such knowledge does not come to more than a semi-psychology, a study which does not pretend to know more than half the richness of the human mind or the personality of man.

In at least some of their departments colleges of education are beginning to venture into new fields. Courses in dance, drama, P.E. and education lead the way in the new exploration. Students are invited to investigate at first hand the pressures that arise when people interact in groups. Video tapes prepared by these teachers in training are studied to observe the life and work of the children in classrooms and how different children respond to the same stimulus.

In drama and dance the student is freed to experience the genius in himself: to explore the real and imagined environment that he and his fellows create. In P.E. the art of relaxation is taught so that a new balance of mind — body relationship is achieved.[10]

But it is not enough that only a few specialists should receive this education. The limits of the egocentric mind of all must be transcended for only teachers who are themselves unafraid will be able to enter into valid communication with their charges. The studies of the East so important to the romantic educators, must be known to all intending teachers for their purpose to be fulfilled. The very word 'teacher' must change its meaning and his duties rethought.

His true rôle may be glimpsed in this poem of Lao Tzu:

A leader is best.
When the people barely know he exists,
Not so good,
When the people obey and acclaim him,
Worst when they despise him.

Fail to honour the people,
And they fail to honour you,
But be a good leader who talks little,
When his work is done,
And his aim is fulfilled,
They will all say, 'we did it all ourselves'.

CONCLUSION

Both wings of the progressive party seek to build a better world through education.

For the Romantic the task is to confirm each pupil as a human being and to realise the true self of every man. Typically he prefers the interactionist approach and looks to all the studies of individual man for his aid.

The task the Reconstructionist has set himself is the building of a new society led by the teaching profession. He is informed in his

efforts by the researches of the sociologist. The two factions have argued and quarrelled.

But they have also learned from one another.

Certainly the life of pupils in a Progressive school in or out of the State system would please both.

The two sides must combine in the face of the recent attacks by the authors of documents like the Black Paper.

If they do it is the children in the schools who will benefit.

NOTES:

1. The scientific strain of the progressive movement has had its greatest impact on the Normative system of the ideology. Clearly a belief that progressive teachers should be child centred implies that the natural laws of child development should be discovered and obeyed.
2. See Boyd and Rawston 'The Story of the New Education' Heinnemann pages 62 and 67.
3. Rugg 'address to the 10th Conference of the N.E.F.' reproduced in the Report of the Conference published by Orient Longmans pages 60-72.
4. This phrase is taken from Lynd 'On shame and the search for Identity'. This book is the most complete documentation of the subject. The 'terrors' referred to are, of course, counted as trivial incidents by adults but nonetheless slowly shape the personality profile of the individual.
5. This passage owes much to Edmond Holmes's 'What is and might be'. Although he never became a theosophist Holmes may be called the father of the romantic educators. His writings inspired many and his influence protected Lane and O'Neill when their enemies sought to destroy them.
6. See for example Read 'Education through Art' (Faber).
7. Much of the data for this section is taken from 'The heart doctrine' Judge.
8. Details of Progressive schools may be found in the writings of Neill, Berg, and Rugg. It is not suggested that these schools are run or staffed by theosophists.
9. Material for this section is taken from Rugg 'Imagination' (Harper) Tagore 'Personality' (McMillan).
10. The T.E.S. of the 11th July devoted a four page spread to articles such as 'Do you know how to breathe' (Barlow). 'The Art of Relaxation' (Anthony).

The author would like to thank his colleagues at Chorley College of Education for their help in preparing this article and to mention especially Mr H. Adair and Mr D. Clegg for their useful comments.

Educational Cameo.
From a Correspondent

Changing Habits of Parenthood — as seen from a Secondary School

How much have parents changed in the last 25 years?

When a parent of a newcomer to my school walked in, took out a piece of paper and proceeded to ask me 30 pointed questions about the running of my school, I wondered how the first headmaster I served under, now over 30 years ago, would have reacted.

In those days heads interviewed parents, not parents head teachers of state schools.

In the 15 years I have been a head I have noticed tremendous changes in little things.

Even 15 years ago it was relatively rare for a parent to come up to complain about disciplinary action taken by teachers in a school. Then there was still a hang over from the days, when parents said: 'Don't come bleating to me. If you got walloped, you deserved it. And if you keep on grumbling, I'll double it'. Now when corporal punishment is very rare, parents tend to come up to complain even about verbal correction of some of their offspring. The attitude too often now is: 'Authority is wrong. Therefore teacher must be in the wrong.'

In 1969 80 per cent of my first year pupils had two and even three Christian names. There was one with six — 'John, Edward, Frank, Albert, Samuel, Herbert.'

15 years ago only about 30 per cent had two Christian names.

Now I notice too that parents, even those living in terrace houses, are not content to have just numbers to their houses. They have names to their houses like 'Sunset' or 'Bella Vista'.

This year I noticed that a first year pupil's parents were living in a house called: 'Valley View'. The house number followed. It was in

one of the condemned courtyards which still survive in our catchment area.

I also find that the younger parent of to-day provides the school with a mass of personal information an earlier generation never wrote in the Confidential information sheet. This year I have had this type of information: 'We had him before we were married': 'I'm not quite sure who his father was': 'She was a seven months baby': 'Her date of birth was January 12 1958 at 3.35 a.m. at . . .'. The name of the Maternity Hospital was given.

15 years ago in this area relatively few mothers were out at least on full time work. There were plenty of part timers. Now at least three quarters of the mothers of our first year parents are doing full time work or work involving much longer hours than their predecessors did. The Junior Schools now tell us not only the father's occupation but the occupation of the mother as well.

I note in a number of cases mother is earning more than father and I am wondering whether this is going to have effect on the children.

15 years ago it was rare for a parent to give a telephone number, where a parent could be contacted in the case of an emergency in school hours. Now it is the exception for a parent to fail to give a telephone number, even if it only be a works number.

The children are far better clothed than their predecessors. They are far better travelled. The family without a car in our area is an exception. Parents complain we do not have a large enough parking area, when we hold Parents' Meetings.

Our eleven year olds have had far more spectacular holidays than their predecessors. One of my second year pupils two years ago went for his Summer Holidays to a South Sea island. Last year he went to Russia. His mother works for a big Travel Agency.

What concerns me most is that so many children now come from broken homes.

I have noticed an increasing number of applicants for jobs in the school office and canteen are women, whose husbands have left them.

Three schools near me have secretaries who have young children who are divorced or separated from their husbands.

Only last week a head was complaining to me that his secretary was discussing the progress of her divorce proceedings with some of his Sixth Form.

When our last batch of newcomers came in, for a week or more I had a procession of mothers calling to describe the emotional problems of their youngsters. There had been domestic smash ups. Most of these women were younger than the parents of the eleven year olds we had 15 years ago. Several discussed with me what to do, should the fathers call at the school and wish to see their children.

I calculate that in one small class a quarter of the children come from broken homes.

Is this the price that has to be paid for earlier marriages? Will all the material comforts youngsters have to-day make up for the instability of so many homes. In ten years time will we have an even bigger crime wave on our hands than we have to-day?

Are creature comforts more important than happy homes?

I am certain of this. For all the 'Telly' youngsters have to-day and all the money they have, they are no happier than their predecessors 15 years ago.

CANADIAN SECTION

The President of the Canadian Section, Professor A. P. Ramunas, visited the Chairman, Dr Henderson and the General Secretary during his stay in London, and gave a very favourable report on the developments of the new Section, many of whose members hope to attend the International Conference this year. Twenty five places have been reserved from Ontario and a further contingent is expected from Ottawa.

Coordinated Approaches for Evaluating Educational Program Attainment and Community Impact of Schools

Eugene L. Baum Ph.D., Director of Research
Human Development Corporation of
Metropolitan St. Louis.

The weight of recent work in the area of educational evalution has consisted of uncoordinated, short-run, sometimes informal, and, mostly unconvincing efforts. Increasing demand for credible assessment has not been satisfactorily addressed in many articles and papers on the subject. Limitations placed upon the extent of educational innovation; reluctance to consider efficacy of unorthodox evaluative indicators and measures; and, a lack of adequate funding for the specific purpose of comprehensive educational evaluation — have at various times limited scientific evaluative efforts. It may be helpful to distinguish between two **levels** of investigation and two **targets** of such efforts in our continuing search to elevate the state of the art.

Effective evaluation recognizes that there are two levels and two targets of assessment in the actual operation of most education programs. The two levels are: first; an interim achievement 'level'; and, second, an ultimate outcome 'goal.' **Interim achievements** might be conceived as steps up the ladder of educational progress toward **final outcomes**. Achievement levels are stated most usefully in numerical terms, such as test results and rates of improvement of achievement. However, ultimate outcome goals are effectively defined in a more qualitative nature, such as improving socio-economic-political effectiveness of the community. The two targets of evaluation include: first, **isolated educational program components**; and, second; **overall community impact** of the school's activities. **Coordination** of both levels and both targets of evaluation presume certain study design essentials:

1 **defining** educational program effects in measurable counts;

2 **viewing** school programs and community impact as both additive and integrated results;

3 **controlling variables** to ensure comparability of statistics for trend inference;

4 **planning** for the use of rank order relations in intra-educational program measures and related community impacts; and,

5 **indicating** qualitative forces, tensions, and, influences which express relationships between programs and impact.

Most evaluations of educational projects have not distinguished among the various levels and various targets of examination.

Community Impact of School Programs
Criteria and procedures for operationally assessing program effectiveness resulting in community change may be developed on four degrees of complexity:

At the first level of educational assessment is the short-term measurement of results achieved from a controlled, self-contained program, designed to accomplish a readily measureable specific objective. An example might be — a course in remedial reading instruction which is almost immediately subject to evaluation by standard techniques and classic experimental design.

A second level encompasses intermediate-range educational and social assessment, and, is much more complex. In this type of effort we assess a multi-faceted program directed toward a complex but still reasonably specific problem. A night school program including basic skill courses, home economics, and political awareness information falls into this category.

The third level of evaluation is markedly increased in complexity — almost unmanageably so in terms of rigorous scientific methods. Here, an array of broad interactive educational and social programs are launched simultaneously on many fronts in an effort to combat a multi-trait, heterogeneous community condition which is characterized by a wide variety of diverse concomitants. The possibility of partialing out the effectiveness of the community school's various interrelated components, some of which

serve purely catalytic functions, is an extremely problematic issue. An example might include a pre-school operation featuring satellite Day Care and Employment opportunities for adults. At this level of evaluation the question of concomitancy and direction of concomitance becomes critical — particularly in terms of educational program revisions designed to ensure that the right efforts are being directed to the correct groups at the appropriate time.

The fourth level of community evaluation is necessarily long-range. This is usually called a formal community impact study. The question to be approached is whether or not such program actions with accumulated social and psychological effects over time, have, for example — increased the economic self sufficiency of the individuals and families within a selected community.

Examples: Impact Indicators
Longer term evidences of community and individual improvements logically can be expected to accrue as the result of well-conceived and effectively operated community schools. Some of the questions and indicators of change which we may use to begin to determine such impact include changes in the following areas:

INDICATOR	DATA SOURCE
I) **Quality of Education** A. dropout, absence, tardy comparisons over past several years, B. rate of achievement test score changes, C. professional qualifications of teachers, D. number and severity of vandalism incidents, E. numbers of night school students, F. library book usage rates, G.	School records including results of achievement and intelligence tests; teacher interviews; peer group ratings; structures anecdotal records.
II) **Community Indicators**	
1. number of those looking for work 2. employment and underemployment rates	Local and state employment service records, Labor Department Surveys, Census results
3. crime, juvenile delinquency rates	Police department apprehensions by district, Juvenile court personnel, Court caseloads
4. physical community conditions	Local historical society, old pictures, private home movie collections, City records
5. welfare cases by number and type	Local and state welfare office, War on Poverty, Model Cities
6. community adjustment factors	Police, court, health records on: drug addiction, illegitimate births, divorce rates, alcoholism
7. changes in basic utility and community services	Election records for bond issues for sanitation, beautification; telephone, gas, electric service records
8. general community involvement	Local election turnouts; participation in religious, political, social and fraternal community organizations

Individual Program Evaluation Indicators

The credibility limitations of any type of community impact study such as the foregoing — should be recognized, especially when such work is conducted by the host or funding agency. However, impact data is useful to the extent the information is coordinated with the particularly appropriate indicators of individual program goal attainment.

A basic methodological problem, noted before, which constitutes a severe and pervasive difficulty in socio-educational research is: the multiplicy of relationships among educational program components and the various desired results. Almost any given educational program component will have multi-effects, and, almost any given result can be seen as proceeding from the interaction of multiple school programs. Additional complicating factors include: 1) intra-element interactions do not remain constant over time; and, 2) cause and effect do not maintain their identity over time — but vary as between cause and effect. An effect at one point in time assumes an important causal role in the reaction chain at another point in time.

However, educational evaluation focusing on program process and product, provides the needed second half of the evaluation base. The community-wide-impact and the program-goal-fulfillment examinations should be carefully coordinated. Each type depends upon findings from the other.

Educational programs, in many cases, have been 'evaluated' merely in terms of what was offered: counseling, remedial teaching, basic adult education, therapy, social-casework activities, etc. Effective education was viewed as that which is offered in a professional manner by effective personnel. But educational service can also be viewed in terms of product as well as process. Ultimately, success or failure (and ultimate value) of educational programs is carried forth in terms of the outcome rather than in terms of the procedures employed in the program.

The two basic design requirements for evaluating the extent of goal attainment of various programs are critical in their implications: first; quantitative objectives must be clearly specified in measureable terms; and, second; qualitative changes or situations held as goals should be carefully described.

Rank Ordering Program Results and Community Impact

Evaluators must be realistically aware of the necessity of viewing educational programs and communities as in intrinsic competition for scarce funds. Comparative studies across and within schools and communities become mandatory due to the restrictions of limited monies from city, state, and, federal levels. Assessment efforts related to community schools should explicitly recognize the spirit and practical existence of such competition for money. Therefore, the basic approach of rank-ordering comparable program results by comparison with a frequency distribution of parallel social and educational measures from other similar programs is crucial. It is difficult to see how meaningful progress in evaluation can proceed without the fundamental tool of rank ordering. Necessary for this is standardized expression, as far as practical, of program results and community impact.

Summary

There will be increasing demand for evaluations of socio-educational programs within the next decade. Much past attention has had a limited scope. A further chronic weakness has been the vague and somewhat incomplete depth of educational goal statements. Educators have the responsibility of responding to the growing need for measurement of educational program effect and community impact of schools through experimentation with innovative and creative methodologies.

Group Work and the Process of Inquiry in the Social Studies

J. D. McAulay, Professor of Education, Pennsylvania State University.

Many social studies programs may not be reaching most children in the elementary school because the material is irrelevant and the methods too traditional. Rigid teachers and an outdated curriculum alienate children making them hostile and uncooperative.[1] Bloom maintains[2] that the greatest immediate payoff for children in understanding any organized social studies content is likely to come from modifications in instruction to meet the needs of individual children. A child should ask those questions pertinent to him. He must be allowed to follow particular modes of inquiry in dealing with interesting and pertinent data to find relevant answers.[3] This does not mean the child wanders aimlessly from topic to topic or from phase to phase. He thinks through a question on the basis of some logic and with the teachers guidance and direction. In terms of that child's reasoning, his moves are orderly. He goes back and forth to test his procedures, to examine his contradictions. However this effort must be concentrated on a topic which has meaning and pertinency to the child.

Bloom reports[4] that group procedures should be available to children as they inquire into pertinent questions. He found that small groups of 2 or 3 children meeting regularly to go over points of difficulty in the training process were most effective especially when the children can cooperate and help each other without any danger of giving each other special advantages in a competitive situation. This may be accomplished through the use of simulation games such as 'Consumer' (John Hopkins), 'Dangerous Parallel' (FPA), 'Life Career' (John Hopkins), 'Reconstruction' (A.B.T. Associates) which bring reality to the social studies.[5] Role playing can initiate valid inquiry. A black child can act out the part and behaviors of a white child and vice versa. Where learning can be turned into a cooperative process with everyone likely to gain from the operation, small group learning procedures can be most effective. In the group the more able children have opportunities to strengthen their own learning by helping another child grasp the idea through alternative ways of explaining and using the ideas.

Children learn more effectively and efficiently in groups of three or four when communication is built on investigation into a common area of concern. This investigation, according to Goldmark[6] show five main components. The children in the group must determine the substantive level of inquiry, 'what do we do and how do we do it'? The criteria level must be discussed: 'why are we doing it this way'? The evaluative level, 'what are we assuming and valuing'? must be understood. The 'retroduction level,' in which children should be concerned with new assumptions, must be considered. The final level, 'new ways of inquiring' is concerned with the investigation into the new assumptions. Thus the individual child within the group is committed to cooperative action in behaving, doubting and questioning. He may be concerned with questioning social behavior, or values or sources of information concerning a social problem. Within the group the child's ability in recognizing assumptions, arguments and conclusions concerning the topic under study can be tested within the peer group. He is acquiring cognitive skills.

Fenton has indicated that a child who has developed elementary cognitive skills has learned a quantity of material essential to the development of a sophisticated mode of inquiry.[7] There is an ever increasing amount of content in the social studies the teacher is expected to cover and the children are expected to learn. For the salvation of both teacher and child only that context should be selected which best lends itself to the child's discovery of priority generalizations.[8]

Suppose the generalizations to be acquired by a group of fifth grade children concerns the major contributions made by Negroes in the development of the United States.[9] This generalization may be broken into several components. The children might combine efforts in committees of two or four persons and each committee explore a different aspect of this generalization. It is not wise to parcel out different phases or parts of the area of inquiry to various committees[10] unless children have had

experience and developed skill in committee work. Children unacquainted with group work will need a great deal of supervision and it would be best that each committee inquire simultaneously into the same component of the generalization.

Each committee might explore the migration of negroes during the 20th century![11] The substantive level for the group might be to determine why such large numbers of negroes have been moving out of the rural south and into the cities of the north and west and into the urban communities in the south as well. One committee might decide to draw a map showing those cities into which the large number of negroes have moved. Another committee might construct graphs indicating by decades the number of negroes who have moved out of the rural areas into the cities. Still a third might illustrate by a mural the routes of migration (such as the Mississippi Valley) which the negroes have taken. The criteria level might be substantiated by having those children interested in mathematics compose the committee that constructs the graph. That group working on the mural might be children competent in art. The evaluative level would be the children's concern with the questions as to whether the economic and social status of the negro has improved since 1900 and if he is more able to secure political power to hold public office and affect the outcome of close elections. The retroduction level might be a study of the Supreme Court's historic decision of May 17, 1954 outlawing racial segregation in the public schools. The children could inquire into the question of how much more active, politically, has the negro been, to improve his social and economic status since that important court decision. The children might decide to investigate, through a survey, if the negroes in their own town believe conditions have improved. Letters of inquiry might be sent to a fifth grade class in a neighboring state to determine what changes are occurring in the status of the negro. The children might invite local negro leaders into the classroom to inquire how today's negro leadership differs from that of Frederick Douglass and Booker Talraferro Washington. The children might ask how today's negro might react to the latter's statement 'The wisest among my race understand that the agitation of questions of social equality is the extremist folly.'

The principal objective of committee work however is that children inquire into problems, once they have become skilled in committee work, which are of interest to them. In a unit on the Westward Movement, again for the fifth grade one group only might be interested in the negroes role in the development of the west both in Indian Wars and as cowboys. The conclusion of the inquiry might be the single but important fact that one fifth of all the cavalry companies assigned to the pacification of the west were negro. However in a unit on 'American Inventors,' that committee concerned with the negroes contribution might uncover much information. In the 18th century for example shipowner James Forten, a negro, invented a soil handling device. Before the Civil War, another negro Norbert Fellieux devised a new way of refining sugar — ironically contributing to the profitability of slavery. Other negro inventors include Granville T. Woods who originated induction telegraphy, the third rail on electric railways and 23 other inventions. Jan Mat Zelinger from Dutch Guiana (one of 60,000 negroes who voluntarily migrated to the United States after the Civil War) perfected a device that revolutionized the shoe making industry. Through their own efforts of inquiry the fact will have more meaning and pertinency that by 1900 negroes had been granted patents on some 400 useful devices.

Thus the process of inquiry through group work may revolve about a converging social question with which each committee is concerned and there is a structured procedure. The topic of inquiry may be divergent, have many ramifications and allow each committee to pursue its own course of investigation. The amount and usability of resource materials will be the deciding factor as to the sophistication of the process.[12] However the teacher's potency must be seriously considered. He must make the most of opportunities to operate the process of inquiry. He must use with discrimination his power to interfere and 'give' the right answer. Too the teacher must be a warm, well integrated person who can allow a child to live and learn in a child centered classroom.

It is vitally essential that the child learns how to cooperate with others in the process of inquiry.

He must be prepared for a society in which a panoply of forces challenge the ancient patterns of dominant values. As an adult he will be surrounded with powerful influences which will increase the tempo and massiveness of contemporary social change. As a voting citizen he should be concerned with the technology of communication and its interaction with human crowding that results from population growth and urbanization. He will live in urbanized economy transformed from an industrial to a post industrial base.[13] It is through cooperative inquiry the child will learn to objectively evaluate the original and different solution to a problem, to develop boldness and imagination in thinking through a difficult social question. Group work teaches the child to establish common goals, communicate effectively and develop a balance between cooperation and competition. The most valuable goal of today's social studies may well be to teach children how to work with the inquiry process in a group situation.

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For Jeannie Cannon in affectionate and grateful esteem

I want to write about Jeannie as I imagine many of the people who loved her and learned from her will want to do, not because any of us who know her need a reminder of what she was and what she gave but because what she believed in and practised in her classes needs to be shouted abroad in these days when economics, technology and politics seem to be taking pride of place in governmental decisions about education, when educational institutions are judged by material considerations such as quantity of output and minimum costs, and when people involved in the profession of education are allowing themselves and what they have to offer to be evaluated by people concerned with material values. Can any of you hear what Jeannie would say to those of us who are allowing this to happen?

The last time I talked with Jeannie was at Attingham Park in July 1969 when we met at a conference of people concerned to explore the nature of reality in the Inner and Outer Worlds and were helped by Jeannie to explore our own reality through our paintings. This was for me as for others in the group a continuation of a personal journey which I had taken with Jeannie on previous occasions but which added something to my personal understanding because of her implacable insistence that what mattered was understanding what had been expressed in a creative act.

It so happens that I also knew and had worked with Alfred, Jeannie's husband, whom she had lost in death six months earlier after a short illness. I knew he was going to die and wrote to her beforehand as a friend of both of them in a way which surprised her but in some curious way helped her when it happened. So during the conference at Attingham Park, Jeannie and I withdrew for a few hours to the hills nearby which she had known well as her childhood was spent in the area. We talked about Alfred and her feelings about herself and I knew she was getting ready to leave us, not out of any sense of desolation or despair but because she knew her body was pretty used up. Because of this I was not surprised when Jeannie left us

a few weeks ago and rejoice that her gay, optimistic, valiant and utterly sincere spirit is now free of an increasingly frail body to work elsewhere.

However, I am left here, together with many others who learnt something from her gaiety, optimism, valiance and sincerity about the proper nature of education which has something to do with awakening or intensifying of people's response to the glories of the outer and inner worlds, and helping them to respond creatively from their own personal and private beings, and ask myself what have I to do now.

If education takes place when two or more persons engage in a contract which increases their understanding of the nature of life and releases creative energy, then Jeannie was one of those rare people engaged in the contract as professionals who understood what it was about, never deviated from putting into practice her beliefs and never compromised under pressure from any source.

People of Jeannie's quality occur rarely in our contemporary educational scene. Perhaps it was because she remained to the end a free lance artist-teacher who gave her services where and when they were wanted that she remained unaffected by the pressures of materialist society and gave freely, whole-heartedly and without reserve from her loving heart what she believed to be the truth. Though this gave her spirit freedom it did not give her the material security most of us enjoy. Can those of us who have felt her influence but who are employed in a system with alien values do anything to spread the gospel without contracting out of the system?

I believe we can and must do so. I believe also that those of us with convictions must stop waiting for a new leader to appear, and speak loud and long with our individual voices. The 1970s are dawning without an A. N. Whitehead, a Froebel, a Susan Isaacs, a Herbert Reid, or a Jeannie Cannon. They are dawning with pressures that are inimical to values in education for which they stood.

Many thinking people today recognize that human society is facing a crisis and that its future depends upon the kind of education given to its children. Somehow or other society at large has got to be made to realize that it is the quality of education which is going to count in the long run and that it must organize itself to get what it needs through its provisions for education. We don't have a Plato around to spell it out but we do have within the education profession a considerable number of teachers who could lead society towards a new evaluation of education if they care sufficiently to give time and energy to preaching the gospel.

Among young people today are those who feel disenchanted as a result of their education and see no alternative to opting out of a society which seems to them hell-bent on its own destruction. Many of them care not only about their own future but the future of their fellow human beings at least as much as we do. While we sit on the fence, provaricate, compromise or submit to alien pressures and do our own kind of opting out, we are not only letting ourselves down but we are letting the youngsters down and depriving future generations of what we might build together.

Despair or rejection, indifference or laissez-faire are the easiest courses to adopt today if we do not care overmuch about the future. A renewed courage and resolve will make possible a new vision without which people, as we know them, will cease to exist.

Eileen Churchill.

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Perspectives in lifelong education

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The celebration in 1970 of International Education Year, to be promoted and co-ordinated at international level by Unesco, is intended, as the Director-General pointed out recently, 'to stimulate and facilitate, at national level where the decisions are taken, the mobilization of efforts and initiation of projects designed to achieve concrete aims', and to instigate 'collective critical reflection by governments of Member States and their public and private institutions as well as by governmental and non-governmental international organizations.'

The following analysis of some of the implications of life-long education for the future was prepared as a contribution to such reflection by a member of the Secretariat who has devoted many years to the study of these problems.

What is lifelong education?

The term 'lifelong education' covers a very wide field. In some cases it is applied to strictly vocational education, that is, training and refresher courses in a particular technical skill. It may also cover much the same ground as adult education, taken in a much broader sense than training for a specific job though excluding the development of all facets of an individual's personality. But more and more frequently it is being applied to new activities and fields of research which are not included in the traditional notion of adult education, much less vocational training, and which express a desire for evolving a new style education.

At the present stage of thinking and practice, lifelong education is a very complex notion which cannot as yet be clearly defined. We should perhaps attempt to systematize its various elements and show their interrelationship with one another. According to the first — probably the most widely accepted — meaning of the term, education does not end when the individual leaves school (whether primary, secondary or university) but continues throughout life. This interpretation of the educational process is reflected in what we call today adult education.

It might appear therefore that it is simply a natural tendency to give a new name to a form of education which in fact already has a long tradition. But one may discern in this context a less traditional element, setting it apart from the narrower concept of adult education as a means of making good the shortcomings of basic education. The latter coincides to a certain extent with the theories and practice of popular education and culture. However, the use of the term 'lifelong education', is intended to embrace a much broader concept; the continuation of the educational process, without interruption, to fulfil the aspirations and develop the potentialities of each individual human being, and to meet the ever more pressing demands of a world in transformation. Everyone nowadays realizes that, in the present-day world where structures are constantly changing, the lives of individuals, communities or nations cannot be geared to any standard formula of education.

This first meaning of lifelong education is therefore a limited concept, and research on new orientations is at present being carried on in many institutions, including Unesco.

A radical transformation of the concept of education

If man can and should continue learning, training and improving his professional qualifications, developing his intellectual, emotional and moral potentialities, contributing more to his personal relationships as well as to the community at large, and if adult education is to provide adequate facilities to help him achieve these aims, then educational thinking and processes must undergo a radical transformation. It is obviously impossible to maintain traditional systems of education when the needs they were designed to meet have changed. Since every man and woman is engaged throughout life in a continuing process of learning, the kind of education that is being provided today, especially for young children and adolescents, must be overhauled completely both in its content and in its methods. Up till now, the basic aim of primary, secondary and university education was dictated by the traditional view that life was divided into two distinct parts: a period of preparation and

training, followed by a period of action.

In primitive societies, the young were prepared for adulthood by the elders or wise men of the community or tribe and those who had mastered various techniques. This preparation ended with a period of initiation, after which the young man or woman entered adult life and was expected to play his or her appropriate role.

In our own societies, we have created similar rites for this transition in the form of examinations and diplomas marking the end of training for adult life. After passing his final examinations, at 15, 20 or 25 years of age, a young man was considered ready for working life, equipped with the appropriate intellectual baggage, references, standards of behaviour, habits and customs to enable him to play a rôle in adult society for which his abilities and his social status more or less adequately fitted him.

Life was thus neatly divided into two parts and the aim of education was to provide the future adult with the attributes he would need to fill the various rôles he might be called upon to play in life. As a result, the whole education system was designed to cram the pupils' heads with all kinds of facts, and they were supposed to draw on this accumulated capital as best they could to lead a satisfactory life. But if, on the contrary, man can and should continue to learn and educate himself throughout his life, there is no reason to overburden his brain as a child.

The rôle of the school, in this perspective, changes completely. To start with, it should contribute as effectively as possible to real education. In a harmonious system of lifelong education, this only begins after the individual leaves school or university and undertakes his own education, and when he possesses the necessary motivations to continue study and training. Instead of being essentially a process of acquiring knowledge, basic education becomes a kind of prelude. Rather than offer courses in different subjects, it should provide the future adult with the means of expressing himself and communicating with others. The main emphasis should be on mastery of language, on the development of faculties of concentration and observation, on knowing how and where to obtain information and the ability to work with others. The very existence of a broad and vigorous system of adult education will have an impact on all educational thinking and practice, firstly in the university, then in secondary and primary school and beyond that in the family and the community in which it is applied.

According to a second interpretation of lifelong education which is closer to the true nature of this concept, all educators and particularly those engaged in adult education must undertake a complete overhaul of all the different forms of education and training required by modern man in all the different stages of his existence. Each period of our lives in fact represents at once a unique and valuable experience and a preparation for future stages. This duality is true not only of childhood and adolescence but also of the early years of adult life, maturity as well as the periods later in life. Each phase of man's existence should be lived to the full and should contribute its part of experiences, pleasures and satisfactions in the long process by which he gradually comes to know himself through a series of revelations. On the extent to which every individual benefits fully from each period of his life depends his preparation for subsequent periods. To live as if one had been granted some kind of reprieve is merely a form of escapism. Yet this is very often the case with children and adolescents. Schooling acts as a brake on their development and prevents them from leading the kind of life they should at that age, with the result that they develop a negative attitude towards education which seems to restrict their freedom, instead of being a source of joy and personal fulfilment. A truer understanding of life and its different phases leads to a much more comprehensive view of lifelong education, embracing far more varied activities than adult education which, however, will have a very important role to play. Since all aspects of education are interwoven in an organic whole, it would be illogical to introduce vital reforms in the first phase unless there is an active and well organised system of adult education.

Other aspects of lifelong education

Consideration must also be given to other less fundamental aspects of lifelong education, conceived as a process of learning which must meet

the needs of each successive phase of life. Firstly, there can be no question of an age limit for education: education is a way of life, or rather a way of being aware of what is happening in the world. Some individuals are alive to what is going on around them, others pay no attention. There are people whose whole aim in life is the search for security; others on the contrary are not only prepared to take risks but voluntarily seek adventure and tackle difficulties. The whole purpose of lifelong education is to make individuals aware of the world around them, to launch them into the stream of life, in contrast to the kind of sleepwalker's existence of those who, at some stage or other, have stopped learning and drifted into confirmist habits of mind.

Secondly — and this is very important — the notions of failure and of success lose their significance. It goes without saying that in a system of education which finishes at a certain age and is marked by 'initiation rites' consisting of examinations, diplomas or other forms of selection, those who succeed are cut off from those who do not. Society is thus divided into two groups: the fortunate, on the one hand, and the unlucky or unacademic on the other, who thus find themselves labelled for life by often entirely fortuitous circumstances. But if, with the appropriate structures, an individual is engaged in a continous process of education and is constantly learning something new, then a failure is only relative. If he does not succeed in one particular venture, many other opportunities are open to him in which he can test his abilities. He does not **become** a failure, he merely **has had** one failure among others in his life; in the same way, a success is also relative and only applies to one in a series of undertakings which may or may not prove successful. When it is institutionalized, success may prove just as much of a constraint as failure, and in some cases even more detrimental. An individual who fails in a particular venture is forced to take stock, to start afresh, whereas an individual who succeeds — especially if his success sets him apart from his fellows — tends to believe that the rest of his life will be plain sailing. For those who are constantly starting something new in a process of lifelong education, success and failure are only relative notions and thus lose any absolute significance.

The aim is to increase each individual's possibilities of expressing himself on the intellectual, emotional, social and professional planes, as well as in relationships between the sexes, between parents and children, and so forth. There are countless situations in which a man may succeed or fail, but the important thing is that he should have a positive approach to these situations, that he should be vigilant and enquiring, not a passive observer. Certainly, one cannot rule out all selection: industrial and commercial firms or administrative enterprises, for example, are not prepared to recruit staff on trust but demand certificates and diplomas. In actual fact, therefore, there is a contradiction which cannot be ignored between the development of lifelong education and the practical necessity for selection. But in the main this is not a problem for educators, but one which must be solved by employers who will have to find their own means of recruiting the men and women they need, on condition that this obligation for selection at a given moment does not have a backlash on general education, which is governed by other imperatives. Moreover, it may be possible to develop systems where, even after selection, there are opportunities for an individual who has already qualified for and entered one profession to follow study courses for others and to be able to change from one to another. Facilities of this kind already exist in some Socialist societies, and in certain countries no one may occupy a post of high political or social responsibility for more than a limited number of years. This practice might become more general, so as to favour a rotation which would mean constant revision in selection, providing new opportunities for those who give proof of their competence in their work, and a chance for employers to recognize the talents and abilities of their employees.

Education for the development of personality

Another important consequence of lifelong education is that it will, to a far greater extent than traditional education, reveal the originality of each individual. Human nature is the same the world over, but every human being is unique: in the words of the philosopher 'You cannot descend in the same stream twice'. Each

individual is to a certain extent aware of this need to develop his potentialities and live his life as fully as he can. Consciously or perhaps subconsciously, he strives to free himself from anonymity and to leave his own imprint on the contributions he makes to his environment, to his times and to the type of civilization of which he is a product. The objects he contributes only partially reflect and express his personality and cannot represent the rich and varied amalgam of elements which make him unique.

Education at the present time takes no account of this basic factor of human individuality. Under the present system, there is no time for it. Schooling is spread over a fixed span of years and ends at a given age, without taking account, for example, of the fact that individuals of equal intelligence and ability progress at varying rhythms; some may be in full possession of their faculties at the age of 20 while others may not reach this stage until they are 30 or even later. An important role is played in this process of depersonalization by examination and diplomas. The criteria — very often arbitrary — on which they are based were established many years ago to meet the demands of a type of society, of categories of employment, temperaments and casts of mind that are by no means universal. In school, the criterion is not the individual, with his biological, psychological, sociological, historical and geographical characteristics, but whether he is a good or bad pupil. These evaluations are very superficial and neglect the day-to-day realities and laws of individual development. In fact, an individual spends his whole life acquiring self-knowledge. That this conquest is a lengthy process can best be seen in the works of great artists: Matisse, Picasso, Titian and Rembrandt are outstanding examples. Works painted by Rembrandt at the age of 30 reveal an artist of exceptional talent and ability, but the man himself is absent. It is only in the later works produced by Rembrandt after the age of 40 and to a greater degree towards the end of his life, that we find the painter and the man fully reconciled. The greater an individual's potentialities, the longer the time needed for their fulfilment. With few exceptions — for example, Mozart, Raphael and Watteau who attained their zenith at an early age — the story of Rembrandt is typical.

What is true for the lives of creative artists is true also, in substance, for all human beings. We are all involved in the great adventure of humanity. In each successive stage of life, through various trials, in relationships with others and in private reflections, man reveals his true originality, unless he is subjected to the tyranny of more forceful patterns such as those imposed in school. Only a small minority can adapt to the accepted — and very restrictive — intellectual pattern which does not take fully into account the real resources of the mind.

When lifelong education becomes a reality, it will be possible to offer greater scope to each individual human being, to be less ruthless and tyrannical and to provide for the needs of a greater diversity of people.

Lifelong education and modern thought

Through the process of lifelong education, each individual will be able to benefit from some of the outstanding advances in modern thought over the past 150 years, including such concepts as historicity, scientific thought and relativity.

By historicity, we mean an awareness that the elements of knowledge are not revelations, nor can philosophic reasoning be taken as fact; that knowledge is a series of conquests but that all advances in knowledge are subject to revision; a recognition of the contribution of past generations to present truths; an ability to situate the ideas of an era of an individual in the context of the evolution of ideas and of the instruments for perceiving and expressing them, and an awareness of one's own progress through a series of stages. This approach enables us to view our own very important era in its historical context and to decipher the historical character of any event. Up till now, education systems have neglected this dimension: the facts taught to young children — the future adults — are generally presented as revelations and are rarely situated in a historical context.

Secondly, there is the scientific approach, the spirit of discovery, of constant questioning. The scientist who undertakes an investigation does not know at the start what he will find. For him, the main interest lies not in gaining knowledge but, once he has discovered a fragment of truth, in

recognizing it as provisional and in proceeding on the basis of that discovery. In contrast to the dogmatic attitude, the scientific approach consists in never formulating a judgement without verifying the facts. It is diametrically opposed to the search for security, which refuses to study problems afresh, seeks to avoid risk, demands ready-made answers and evades fundamental questions. Countless men and women are educated to go through life accumulating answers and basing their attitude on accepted opinions. This is the antithesis of the scientific spirit, which readily admits the possibility of risk, including that of being mistaken. Education should teach us to accept risks and to regard them as a blessing, rather than a hazard in life. Such an approach will only be possible if science is no longer merely a subject in the curriculum, and the scientific method is applied to all aspects of education.

Thirdly, the process of lifelong education must include the notion of relativity which is the natural consequence of the development of historicity and of the scientific approach. Since truth and reasoning are the products of a historical process and all knowledge is provisional and subject to constant revision and verification, the notion of the absolute becomes singularly restricted Education should systematically inculcate in each individual the idea that his beliefs, convictions, ideologies, his habits and customs are not universal patterns or rules applicable for all time and in any civilization or way of life. To understand and accept the relativity of all situations and viewpoints should be one of the principal aims of education. This means that differences should be regarded not merely as a factor to be taken into account but as a common source of wealth.

Lifelong education therefore can and must assimilate these essential conquests of modern thought and introduce them into the thinking and actions of each individual. Most of us still base our lives on archaic patterns; we have not yet succeeded in launching out in the spirit of modern intellectual adventure, research and challenge. Regretfully and unwillingly, we are carried along by the tide of events, striving vainly to slow down or swim against the current. Most people find reality unpleasant and are disorientated when their views and theories are contradicted by the course of events; they lose confidence in themselves when the customary responses are no longer valid. Due to lack of training, they are unprepared to rise to their full stature and devote all their energies to seeking new solutions. They do not seem to realize that the main interest in life lies in this search. Through lifelong education, it will eventually be possible for everyone to acquire this mental faculty, this attitude towards life and truth. Compared with present adult education programmes, particularly in their more limited interpretation, this is obviously a far richer and broader concept.
It is an entirely new view and interpretation of the educational process and even — on a higher plane — of human destiny, which projects the notion of a continuous struggle for self-conquest as a substitute for that of allowing oneself to be lulled into a sense of false security. It is also a guide for future action, because the principles of lifelong education offer clear orientations for the educational reforms which must be made if such action is to be vigorous, intelligent and constructive. Lastly, it is the concept of education which will enable man effectively to fulfil his destiny in the true spirit of modern thinking.

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Case Studies in Teaching

George & Pauline Perry
Published by Pitmans 10s 6d

The publication of a book aimed at stimulating thought about the training of teachers is surely of particular interest to students, lecturers in colleges of education, and to practising teachers. This book fully deserves recommendation. Furthermore, the material collected here concerns human relationships, and therefore should attract the attention of a still wider public; all those interested in this absorbing topic will find much here to consider.

In the publisher's comment it is stated that the study of the techniques of personal relationships has been neglected in the training of teachers in this country. George and Pauline Perry have, in this book, not only provided material suitable for such a study, but have clearly and most practically guided those who might put it into use. Students need practical help in the matter of personal relationships, and in the twenty-five case studies written by practising teachers, which form the core of the book, they will find the kind of problems in school life with which they will become familiar and therefore with which they can identify themselves. In this way they can be prepared to face and to deal with situations presenting difficulties.

The Introductory section of the book contains suggestions of ways in which the material presented in the book can be used. The authors surely refute the allegation often made that those concerned with training tend to be unaware of the practical problems in school! Here is theory alongside its practical application. It is suggested that detailed study and analysis of the case studies should be attempted by small groups of students. The benefit derived from the resulting discussions of problems so closely affecting the students' careers, is described with insight and sensitivity. Lecturers or group leaders are guided in such practical matters as to the size of the group, how to use individual contributions and how to guide the discussions. They are reminded of the learning process involved in the inter-action of the groups, the conflicts engendered and resolved. All this valuable practical information is given in such a way that the lecturer will not feel over-directed but made aware of possibilities for interesting work. Whenever the authors offer suggestions they give an explanation of the underlying reason, and in my view, demonstrated throughout the book, gives the work importance and is one of its greatest merits.

The twenty-five case studies are well chosen and cover a variety of issues relevant to teachers in all fields of education. Discussion of topics such as the responsibilities of teachers for playground and dinner duties, the difficulties of the adjustment of a five-year old to school, streaming, racial prejudice and discipline, to mention just a few issues, presented as case studies would seem to stimulate more involvement and interest than through the use of lectures or seminar papers. The case studies are well written, obviously very sincere and true to life, and very interesting to read. They are very revealing of the feelings and tensions which do occur in school life and each study is a worthwhile topic for study.

This book is a useful contribution to teacher training, and deserves to be studied seriously by anyone concerned with education.

J. Marjorie Scammell.

BORN FOR JOY

Teacher and Learner in a Village School

Mary R. Wedd
Macdonald Price 21s.

Mrs Wedd uses the first hand experience she gained in her first teaching post in a village school to illustrate the problems facing an inexperienced teacher, and then proceeds to analyse what occurred in order to help student teachers. The first part of this book is therefore a very personal account, simply and honestly stated. In spite of the mistakes and fears she lived through, there emerges a picture of a lively personality, enjoying working with children, showing concern for them, and creating the kind of atmosphere in which children will learn. This is enjoyable reading and reassuring for any nervous student teacher. Mrs Wedd emphasises the importance of establishing the right relationship between the teacher and individual children; this she sees as the keynote of good teaching.

In the second part of the book, Mrs Wedd describes what she learnt from her experience and her advice should be valuable. There follows some criticism of educational research and of teaching 'methods' and descriptions of 'problem' children. The practical suggestions as to what can be done to enable such children to make progress are helpful though the inclusion of detailed histories of certain children is perhaps irrelevant.

Mrs Wedd's general advice as to the need for flexibility and humility in teaching, though undoubtedly true, is I should have thought obvious. The practical hints in Part three concerning disciplinary problems and the need for careful preparation and presentation of work, may be welcomed by students, but these matters are dealt with superficially. Mrs Wedd does not explain why what she suggests is likely to be successful. There is a serious limitation in her thinking in this section which might encourage inexperienced teachers to seek 'tips' rather than to analyse what they are doing.

The book ends with perhaps a necessary reminder that children need to be helped to learn to discover and that teachers should have intellectual and cultural riches to offer children.

Although this book affords pleasant reading and contains much useful information, it is disappointingly slight and can neither be considered as an important educational study nor as a purely autobiographical account.

J. Marjorie Scammell

Young lives at stake

Charity James; Collins, 42s.

A hint of the radical nature of this refreshing and talented re-examination of secondary education is given in the Preface, where the author writes: 'Whatever the long-term future of schools (if indeed they have a long-term future as compulsory environments for young people to grow up in). . .' Like the Post-scriptum in a letter which may contain its most important message, the parenthesis here indicates the basic re-thinking and re-appraisal that follow in the book.

There must be many readers of **The New Era** who have pondered the inadequacies of schools — those most artificial communities where dozens of children of the same age and intelligence (and often

of the same sex) are herded together with one adult, or a series of one, for most of their working day. A more unnatural grouping would be difficult to conceive.

Amelioration of this condition is Charity James's theme; her purpose to point the way to making 'education fully human, drawing out the strengths and talents of all young people so that they can acquire the intellectual, practical, and social skills they need, but above all helping them to find within themselves the resources that alone can help them to live at ease with a changing world.'

If this sounds over-idealistic, airy-fairy, or even to some pure mimini-pimini, it should be said at once that the author is fully aware of the difficulty some teachers, parents and employers may have in accepting her argument; that this argument is buttressed by the results of a series of Pilot Courses run by her as Director of the Curriculum Laboratory of Goldsmiths College in conjunction with a number of experienced colleagues; and that possible criticism is recognised and countered as the book proceeds.

A main plea is that adolescents should have an 'education for a well-spent youth', and to this end schools should provide, as few of them yet do provide, conditions which recognise sufficiently 'the value of exploratory and creative work that links theory to practice', as for example the Nuffield suggestions for science teaching have done.

In a chapter on Collaborative Learning, four types of learning are examined and assessed — the Class Lesson, Team Teaching, Individual Learning and Flexible Grouping. Emphasis is put upon the desirability of the last.

The Curriculum comes next, and in the widest sense of the term this is what the book is all about. First come searching criteria for curriculum content and evaluation; then the place of Enquiry, Making, and Dialogue; to be followed in some detail by analysis of its organisation as a fourfold tool in the service of education up to and including the Sixth Form.

Chapter 7, Diversity without Divisiveness, opens with the striking assertion: 'It is very easy for teachers to become without knowing it the hired assassins of talent.' They may, for example, do so by assuming there are fixed standards which children should have reached by a certain age, or that a child's rate of progress can be extrapolated from past progress; they may have too low an expectation, or give too little experience of success; they may impose too uniform a task on pupils of different creative abilities. Guidance is offered on avoiding these pitfalls.

Evaluation of the curriculum, appraisal of the pupil, and Counselling are treated briefly but with insight and authority. The final chapter embraces the changing roles of teachers, including the Head, the effects on teachers and pupils if inter-disciplinary working groups, and the relation of a school with its community.

Throughout, the author focuses attention on internal relationships in school, emphasising that it should be a caring community — caring for and caring about the people who are associated with it, including the parents. As has been repeatedly stressed and ignored for the last fifty years or more, parents and teachers need each other. So do social workers, employers, club leaders — all who are concerned with youth. This book shows how with adjustments in secondary education better use could be made of foundations laid in the primary school, and progress achieved towards a more integrated, a more humane, society.

J. B. Annand.

Guide to the Sixth Form

D. P. M. Michael
Pergamon 1969.
Price 25s (hard cover), 17s (flexi-cover).

'Sometimes the words of an unknown outsider attract more attention than those of a familiar insider', so writes the author in the preface to this small book which originated as a talk at a VIth form conference, and the point is valid. A headmaster of wide experience has here assembled a considerable range of information on the VIth form of today together with advice both on education at this level and on the necessary steps to be taken for the next stage.

A chapter on the academic sixth discusses possible courses of study and desirable attitudes to them: one on the less academic sixth former examines Crowther's criteria and concludes that the sixth may continue as a recognisable entity not so very different from its traditional image. The chapter inevitably alas, contains more of hope and desirability than of fact about what is available for those who will not proceed to University. University entry is discussed but a book of this kind makes no pretence of substitution for the standard literature available to sixth formers. The chapter on entry to other institutes of higher education gives a more useful indication of opportunity, presenting less readily available information. Some useful facts are given on financial dependence, scholarships and grants. The final chapters on study, examinations and general education give guidance and useful hints on technique, efficiency, use of opportunity, reading and related matters. Reading lists are included. Certainly no sixth former and few parents could fail to find some matter of value in this volume.

Nevertheless, the book is open to criticism since it falls between two stools. It is not sufficiently structured and organised to be a reference book, nor does it provide the fluent and pleasant reading of a book that can be welcomed as a companion.

It suffers chiefly from a lack of conjunctions: aphorism follows aphorism, and one is troubled by incessant non-sequiturs. Logic is not flawless, nor is grammar. Infelicities of expression, pale humour, sudden relapses into the imperative, sweeping statements without evidence offend the critical mind and the sensitive taste, as do colloquilisms acceptable in the spoken word but out of place here. In several places there is an underlying assumption of a questionable theory of transfer of training. One would wish to see better quality in the style of a book put into the hands of sixth formers.

In spite of its defects, however, the book provides much sound counsel based on experience and on considerable breadth of interest and culture. Advice is given in a light hearted manner which the reader is likely to find acceptable. School libraries should acquire several copies.

M. M. Hurst B.Sc., A. Inst.P.

Team Teaching in Britain

John Freeman.

Ward Lock Educational 1969. Paperback 30s. pp 417. 24 black and white illustrations, architectural plans, index.

About a hundred schools in Great Britain have submitted their schemes of team teaching. The replies to Mr Freeman's circular were returned in 1967 and they constitute the main part of the book. No claim is made that this is a scientific enquiry. The descriptions received from the schools are the schools' own, not even the school as a whole, but what those who organised team teaching schemes thought about their work. In other words there is more emphasis on success than on failure and brief references 'to differences of temperament between subject specialists' leave uncovered areas of subterranean conflict. It would have been interesting to have heard of schools that tried schemes of team teaching and then analysed the reasons for abandoning them. Despite this, it is a valuable document of a vital experiment in English education. It seems to have grown at grass root level: little information or guidance was available from literature. In infant and junior schools staff seemed to come together naturally and team teaching was developed to avoid the evils of streaming. In secondary modern schools the need to provide an adequate stimulus to non-examination forms was the main motivating factor. Where specialist teaching is either not feasible or is thought inappropriate, where teachers believe that unstreaming is important, where expert teachers are prepared to support less experienced colleagues and where some thought has been given to the effective use of visual aids, team teaching has been tried. As Charity James has pointed out it is a technique and not a way of life but it represents an attempt to break out of old constraints that do more harm than good and it brings teachers together to support one another and to collaborate. Therefore Mr Freeman has provided an important service: he has shown within limits he is the first to admit, what is going on both here and in the United States and what the advantages and disadvantages of team teaching are. There are useful illustrations and plans which make it clear that any change introduced into teaching must be considered in the widest possible context. For the subject specialist disintegration looms behind integration and he feels threatened. Those with managerial responsibility will need to re-think the structure of the institution and architects will have to design new and flexible schools if team teaching takes root. Mr Freeman's book shows that it is not just a passing fad and that it is gaining ground among those sectors in our educational field that can afford to experiment, namely infant and junior schools and some of the non-examination streams in the secondary sector — all this with remarkably little support from colleges and university education departments: why is that?

Charles L. Hannam.

BOOKS RECEIVED

Carnival
W. Martin & G. Vallins, Evans Bros, 6s.

Routes
W. Martin & G. Vallins, Evans Bros, 8s.

Horizon
W. Martin & G. Vallins, Evans Bros, 7s.

Nippers — A Series of Children's Books
L. Berg, R. Parker, G. Kaye, M. Cockett, P. Pickering, J. McNeill, McMillan, 2s. 6d. & 3s. 9d.

Susan Isaacs — The 1st Biography
D. E. M. Gardner, Methuen, 30s.

The Christian in the World
J. Keating, C. Chapman, 9s. 6d.

Ballads & Broadsides
Ed. M. Pollard, Pergamon, 12s.

Theory & Practice of Vocational Guidance
B. Hopson & J. Hayes, Pergamon, 45s.

School Organisation
T. I. Davies, Pergamon, 35s.

Educational Revolution
J. Carmichael, Longmans, 12s.

Mixed & Single-Sexed Schools
R. R. Dale, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 60s.

World History in the 20th Century
R. D. Cornwall, Longmans, 18s.

A Creative Approach to Amateur Theatre
R. G. Newton, J. Garnet Miller, 25s.

Call me Person
B. Willsher, Pergamon, 15s.

Educational Rhythmics,
F. & J. Robins, RA-Verlag, Switzerland

Society & the Teacher's Role
F. Musgrave & P. H. Taylor, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 21s.

Children at School
Credo, Heinemann, 30s.

Hooked on Books
D. Fader, Pergamon, 30s.

The Role of the Teacher
E. Hoyle, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 8s.

In the Theatre
E. Grey, Dent, 20s.

The Bug that laid the Golden Egg
M. E. Selsam, Worlds Work, 13s 6d.

Hester Mouse
E. Hoban, Worlds Work, 14s.

Wandering Robinson
C. Casement, Worlds Work, 16s.

The Last Two Elves in Denmark
M. Calhoun, Worlds Work, 18s.

The Grammar School Tradition in a Comprehensive World
J. N. Hewitson, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 28s.

Guide to the Sixth Form
D. P. M. Michael, Pergamon, 17s.

International Schools and their Role in the Field of International Education
R. J. Leach, Pergamon, 25s.

Reading in Primary Schools
G. R. Roberts, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 16s.

Environmental Studies
D. G. Watts, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 18s.

Society, Schools & Progress in Canada
J. Katz, Pergamon, 21s.

World Outlook — A Study Series
British Democracy in the 20th Century
D. Starkings, Faber & Faber, 6s.
The Hungry World
A. McKenzie, Faber & Faber, 6s.
After the Deluge
J. Standen, Faber & Faber, 6s.

In Quest of the Least Coin
G. Nies Fletcher, Worlds Work, 25s.

Games Teaching
E. Mauldon & H. B. Redfern, Macdonald & Evans 18s.

Caring for Children
M. L. Kellmer Pringle, Longmans, 21s.

Mathematics and the less able
R. C. Ablewhite, Heinmann, 16s.

Scottish Education Looks Ahead
Ed. John Nisbet, Chambers, 10s. 6d.

An Eye on Things
Ed. E. Jones, Pergamon, 10s.

Language and the Child
M. M. Lewis, Nat. Foun. Edu. Res., 10s.

A Modern Course in Biology
M. Deardon & R. Deardon, Pergamon, 35s.

Awakening the Slower Mind
V. R. Bruce, Pergamon, 25s.

An English Course for Everybody
S. P. B. Mais, L. Frewin, 30s.

The Art of Learning
Z. Pietrasinski, Pergamon, 60s.

The Psychology of Efficient Thinking
Z. Pietrasinski, Pergamon, 60s.

Revolting?

Are you underpaid? Are you overworked? Of course you are, but do you have the added quality of being able to look masterful yet benign, in photographs, on television etc., deliver awe inspiring speeches, whether they are understandable or not is of little importance. Are you a megalomaniac or at least can you act like one? If so you are more than half way to becoming a revolutionary of the highest order.

There are, however, one or two points which should be kept in mind before assembling your ideas, and your followers and taking the plunge. The type of revolt you plan depends on when you want to do the work. A peaceful revolt requires forethought whereas a violent one requires a great deal of afterthought.

Peaceful methods make use of literature or similar vehicles for propaganda. The printing of pamphlets may be done

1) if you are a traditionalist at a Chinese laundry or an undertaker's.
2) if you are a realist at a printing works.

Violent revolts require most of the work to be done after power is seized because once there you must stay or be disposed of by a counter revolutionary, who, if a traditionalist, will probably use poison, a time bomb or an ice pick.

Always bear in mind that you will appear in history books. If your surname is Lenin, Bonaparte or Hitler a change may be advisable to avoid confusion (whether you lead a revolt or not). That you will be remembered is inevitable; if you win as a liberating hero; if you lose, as an inhuman monster: above all remembered will be the things that you say, especially if easily quoted. If you are not very good at that sort of thing, pick a few famous words from four or five widely used quotes, make up a notebook of quotes for various occasions i.e. 'spontaneous' all purpose quote number one 'Friends, countrymen you can fool some of the people some of the time into fighting on the beaches because that's what England expects.'

Whatever you do dont allow the idea of failure to put you off because if your side takes a long time to win and even if they dont, it will be known as a civil war, therefore as a revolutionary you cant fail.

Allen Duck.

Editor's note
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Yew Tree Cottage, Roundabouts,
Five Ashes, Mayfield, Sussex.
Tel. No. Hadlow Down 389.

The above article was offered to me by a young writer and I have printed it in place of an editorial.

SCOTTISH SECTION

World Education Fellowship. Fourteenth Annual Conference.

"Current Developments in Social Education"

The necessity and importance of counselling in secondary schools was the theme developed by Mr T. McMahon of St Augustines' Secondary School Glasgow. He defined it as 'The guidance of young people in personal, educational and vocational matters.' The need for counsellors in large modern comprehensive schools was urgent due to the fact that the increased numbers of pupils tended to destroy the personal relationships which are normally built up in smaller schools.

There is much more coming and going of staff and therefore less likelihood than there once was of an accumulation of knowledge of pupils in the staffroom of their parents, families and indeed of the whole neighbourhood. It is becoming apparent that there are two basic needs to be met. The first is to ensure that sufficient factual knowledge of the individual pupil is built up and the second is for the availability of a natural confidant for the boy and girl. Links between home and school urgently need strengthening and in difficult areas new ones created.

The stresses of adolescence were further heightened by the fact that important decisions as to career had to be made at this time. Conflict with and financial dependence on parents could create stresses leading to the choice of 'dead end' jobs agreed to by parents because 'he is unhappy and not making progress anyway'. Wastage of good potential through premature leaving is a serious problem and must be tackled by preventive action by the good housemaster cum counsellor. It is neither advisable to separate vocational, educational and personal counselling, nor spend a disproportionate time on intractable problem children.

The housemaster- counsellor must be a mature person of reasonable academic standing with an interest in children above the ordinary and with an ability to interview and advise parents. Conditions of service and responsibility payments should be such as to attract men and women teachers of high calibre to remain in such posts for appreciable periods. The housemaster must not be made 'the bogey man' of the school in matters of discipline and he must not be swamped with a welter of paper work.

Mr David M. Peutherer spoke of the comprehensive school Currie High School. By a historical introduction he showed that comprehensive education in Midlothian was an outgrowth of their promotion procedures and not forced on them by government.

The common course was started at Currie with the 1966 intake. After discussions with the headmasters of the feeders schools and keeping in mind that recommendations were based on two I.Q.'s, school success, health and home background, pupils were graded A's, B's, C's, D's and E's, and from these, classes of mixed ability were made up with equal numbers from each category. The 'E' pupils formed a small class under one teacher as it was felt that they could not benefit from the common course being offered.

During the second year an amalgam of various factors pupils chose their courses. These factors were:- (a) their successes in subjects studied (b) their parents wishes and the home background and (c) their career ambitions. Parents were fully consulted as to their children's courses.

It was found that some setting became necessary in Mathematics and Modern Languages in the second year and some streaming in the third year resulted in there being two non-certificate classes and four certificate classes of mixed ability.

Contact is maintained throughout with parents by sending out reports twice annually, inviting them to appropriate school functions and by the headmaster setting aside one afternoon for interviewing parents. The social side is not forgotten and permeates the programme at all stages. All classes have a male and female member of staff to look after their welfare and twenty two prefects help with the running of the school which is divided into four 'Houses'. A great variety of pupils interests is served by classes and clubs ranging from Public Speaking to Youth Hostelling and travel abroad. Slides depicting many aspects of Currie School Education were projected in illustration of Mr Peutherer's address.

Mr William Branston of Jordanhill College School took a 'Critical look' at the Common Course and its social implications. Were we so discontented with our selective procedures that we wished to project methods of good primary education into secondary? There was a great desire to avoid social division but was it right to believe that all things are possible for all people given the right environment? There was no doubt that the common course is a possibility in a comprehensive first year and that this makes the old selective procedures unnecessary. It was noticed that when objective examinations were replaced by headmasters' recommendations that there was a marked increase in the numbers recommended.

There were some basic assumptions in the common course. Firstly that the pupils performance at primary level is not reliable in assessing or forecasting success in secondary. Secondly there was a tendency to overstate the ability of the secondary school to assess a new intake in a comparatively short time.

In the organisation of secondary classes what was to be the method? Was it to be alphabetical or classes of mixed ability? In either case standards expected would differ. On what evidence were we to arrange groups within the classes and how would a teacher prepare and initiate work to be done by, say, three groups in a period of forty minutes?

It is imperative that we decide the length of the common course on some kind of evidence and we must not forget nor neglect the backward pupils. We must also consider objectives. Was success merely three 'O' grades in the 4th, 5th or 6th years? If the common course was suitable for pupils who could take 'O' grades in the 4th and 'highers' in the 5th it would be too difficult for 50% of the school population and some of the 50th or 40th percentile would find that extra concentration on one or two subjects would unbalance their education.

A common course should therefore be geared to the average pupil otherwise failure would breed resentment, whether he is working in a socially organised environment or not. It should not be forgotten that innate ability is the criterion of success.

A solution may be found in creating a compromise course geared to the average child with the 'O' grade examinations suitable for 70% of the school

population and comprehensive university education to 'higher' level. Professional qualifications could then be of a post graduate nature.

Mr J. Jarvis Scott, Deputy Director of Education, Dundee set the scene for two talks on the Education Priority Area Action Research project in Dundee. An E.P.A. is described in the 'Plowden Report' as an area where children are most severely handicapped by home conditions. The area will contain very old schools, shortage of staff and a large turnover of staff and pupils. There will also be a high unemployment rate, poor housing and much delinquency. In such an area pupils lack the opportunity to develop intellectual interests.

When the areas are identified, positive discrimination must be practised but not at the expense of other areas, and therefore a greater part of the national income must be spent on education to help these areas. More teachers must be allocated by use of 'Roberts' payments and in the short term money must be made available for the renewing and upkeep of old fabric and the supplying of better equipment. An extension of nursery education is essential.

Dundee was selected for research in this field because of the quality of the inspectorate, the proximity of University and College of Education from which Miss Joyce Watt and Mr Alastair Milne had already worked on 'Project 4', the older sister of nursery education and a parallel of America's 'Operation Headstart'. Mr Tait Advisor on Primary Education had also taken part in 'Project 4'. With the advent of E.P.A. Mr Milne became chairman of the Action Committee and Miss Watt Project Director.

A system for selecting the area was devised based on such statistics as percentage taking free school meals, absenteeism, the number of mentally subnormal children, the amenities in the area and the level of delinquency.

In the E.P.A. attempts were being made to (a) improve the quality and quantity of school staffing, (b) Improve the physical environment, (c) foster community relations, (d) Increase nursery provision and (e) institute the research programme.

Mr Jarvis concluded by assessing their success to date and delineating the essentials for success in the future. The Plowden recommendations were clear. Basically it was a question of finance which he was sure could be made available by trimming some of the peripheral subjects offered in educational establishments today e.g. Japanese.

Much valuable work has been done, much is planned, but 'from here on in the hills dont get any higher but the valleys get deeper and deeper.'

Miss Joyce Watt gave a personal account of the work on the project. Social Education was a deliberate attempt to engender an awareness of the environment of which the individual is a part and to help him to contribute to it, to help him to be perceptive of the needs and mores of the community, to be adjusted to the present environment and yet able to grow from and beyond it.

The environment is physical and psychological with a 'hidden' element. Social Education is achieved by interaction with environment through language, all kinds of social contact, social institutions and by the opportunity for social responsibility. There must also be an awareness of other environments.

The difficulties of social education in the E.P.A. by the conditions already mentioned, overcrowding poor housing, multi-storey living, large families and lack of facilities for social contact. Psychologically the environment is limited in respect of language, values and attitudes. Rehousing, demolition in the area, dwindling institutions empty churches etc., and a high proportion of unstable families makes for a lack of stability. Leadership comes from outwith the community.

Can the schools become vehicles of social education? They are a continuing factor but they too have suffered. The buildings are generally old and lacking in facilities. There is a continual and large turnover of pupils and staff. The high proportion of unstable families and backward children present an acute social problem. The social organisation of the school is of paramount importance though the teachers do not live in the community.

The project has emphasised several activities. Firstly, Nursery education must be extended at all levels, playgroups must be set up and it is essential to encourage the formation of mothers' groups where programmes of language can be operated.

At Primary level awareness of other environments can be developed by outings and the use of rural bases. After school clubs to broaden experience and develop the child's interests can help greatly. The use of specialist teachers in the fields of music and art are invaluable and must be encouraged at all levels.

In the secondary school counselling and guidance is a 'must'. Opportunities should also be taken to make secondary pupils responsible to other groups in the community.

In the community itself attempts must be made to involve immigrants and bring them in to the scheme of things. They should be encouraged to take part in community life at all levels from nursery school onwards. A special effort is needed for the provision of play areas and facilities like adventure playgrounds. Parents must also be encouraged to take an interest in their children's education.

Miss Watt stressed the importance of language as a social skill and the importance of parental involvement in this in a practical and constructive way. The approach to this must not be haphazard but organised within the school, e.g. library for mothers etc.

The role of the teacher as a professional social worker should be considered with all that this implies as to training, recognition remuneration and status in the community.

Do colleges of education give enough help in social education especially in relation to E.P.A. schools?

Are institutions of education, schools, colleges, universities, and educational administrators geared to social awareness and all that is implied in the term 'Social Education'? Is this not a continuing process?

Peter Richardson.

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The Wider World

New Era Enters into partnership with World Studies

At the last meeting of the Editorial Advisory Committee of New Era it was decided to accept an offer to incorporate with our journal a quarterly publication edited by Dr. James Henderson, 'World Studies Education Service' a growing point for us at the time when the country may be entering the Common Market.

The New Era will continue under its present editorship and business organisation and ten issues per year will be produced as heretofore. In addition four quarterly supplements will appear combined with New Era in April, July/August, November and February; these World Studies supplements will be edited by James Henderson as previously and will be sent to New Era readers at no extra cost. Readers of 'World Studies' will be supplied with both journals at a slightly less annual cost than they paid for their quarterly bulletin previously. The title of the combined publication is to be:

'The New Era
Journal of the World Education Fellowship (and) incorporating World Studies Quarterly Bulletin'

It is planned to print a new leaflet about 'The NEW ERA and World Studies Quarterly Bulletin'. There have been critics of our typography but our printer has always been efficient and intelligent and has taken a real interest in the progress of a small journal. Till now he has not been able to offer alternative type but now he has a new typeface which can be used for our combined publication.

For this year only, we shall print our first combined number in **May 1970** as James Henderson, chairman of New Era Editorial Advisory Committee as well as editor of World Studies, has to go to Africa. He will contribute an editorial in that number We hope to print in both journals articles on aspects of world education and research based on actual personal experience. New writers are as welcome as older favourites. So never hesitate to send in to us.

A New Focus Needed

Dr Eric Seidman Associate Professor, University of Maryland.

The great proliferation of counselling services in the schools is frequently viewed as a measure of its success. The validity and viability of counseling need to be determined on the basis of its purposes and related outcomes, rather than on the basis of number of practitioners or by the number of clients seen.

For the most part, studies relating to reactions of the counselee have focused on the client perception of the role of the counselor, on client expectations, and on clients assessment of counselor effectiveness. However, some research has been conducted to investigate students' perception of the counseling process. Carlin (1965) reported that his sample population for the most part were satisfied with services they received. The most frequent criticism (22 per cent) was the counselor's lack of information on educational matters generally and lack of information on vocational materials specifically. Other criticisms complained of counselor disinterest, rigidity, lack of extensive involvement.

Earlier, Heilfron (1960), using number of interviews sought as a criterion, suggested that intellectually inferior, socially immature, or unrealistic students perceived the counselor as helpful. Ripee (1965) found that the students' feelings regarding the success or failure of a counseling program were determined by their perceptions of the role of the counselor, which, in turn, are based on the counselor's perception of his role. Hence, how a student feels about counseling is determined essentially by the degree of congruency of students' and counselors' perceptions of the counselor's role. Brough (1965) supports the significance of the student's perception of the counselor's role and function as an index of the counseling relationship. Dunlap (1965) cites evidence that students see counselors serving as advice givers and speculates that the students' experiences with counselors have led to this kind of expectation.

Bigelow and Humphreys (1967) in comparing student and counselor perceptions of the

counselor's role demonstrated that students appeared to have consistent and well defined ideas regarding the role they believed counselors should play. They believed that counselors were to help them with their vocational plans, educational future, school work assignments, curriculum, and teacher relationships. Interestingly, the students did not view the counselor's role as encompassing personal problems.

It is disturbing to this writer that the great body of material on counseling reported in the professional literature reflects the position that the value of counseling and the need for the continued expansion of this ancillary service is posited on the belief that discrepant behaviour is inevitably a divergence from the 'norm'. A student who manifests academic or behavioral divergence is seen as a fit subject for counseling. Implicit in many definitions of counseling is the acceptance of the institutional structure of education and the press to conform.

School officials, psychologists, and counselors need to take a fresh look at the purposes of counseling and examine the rationale for its existence.

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Group Counselling

K. A. Williams

Research Associate (Counselling), University of Bristol School of Education.

Alick Holden in his recent publication **Teachers as Counsellors**[1] tells how he as a deputy headmaster and head of science in a Liverpool school is able to act as both teacher and counsellor to some of his pupils. Not all the pupils consult Mr Holden of course; for each one that presents his problem to him, there will be another who will go to some other member of the staff and probably a third who will consult no one but his friends. Mr Holden demonstrates that it is possible to combine the functions of teacher and counsellor and whilst he is aware of the suspicion of some of his colleagues and the danger of a dichotomy in his roles, a study of his work should allay the fears of those who consider that their authority will be weakened by the presence of a counsellor in a school. Most schools could benefit from the services of a counsellor on the staff, trained and equipped to help solve the educational, vocational and personal problems of the pupils and to act as a resource, a means of aid and help to other teachers.

It would be foolish however to imagine that the administrative act of appointing a school counsellor would solve all the problems of behaviour and maladjustment within a school. For one thing not all the pupils would wish to consult the counsellor, some preferring the help of other members of the staff and others consulting no one. Even in the United States in those schools where an extensive professional counselling system has operated for several years the pupils continue to consult teaching staff who do not hesitate to give the help required. H. Lytton of the University of Exeter draws attention to this in **School Counselling and Counsellor Education in the United States**; 'a large majority of teachers report that they themselves counsel some students — a statement with which 40% of students agree. As one who thought the amateur tradition of doing things was characteristic of England, I was particularly surprised to see the amateur approach to counselling so widespread in America'.[2]

The school counsellor needs to be an accepted member of the staff of the school if he is to be consulted not only by those pupils who are willing to use his skills but by the other members of the staff to whom children present themselves with problems. Given acceptance by staff and the majority of the pupils and allowing for those pupils who consult staff other than the counsellor, there are still a substantial number of pupils who will consult no one but their friends.

Using a technique of group discussion with pupils to elicit areas of concern, followed by a questionnaire to discover if they would be prepared to talk to a teacher of their own choice about their problems, I found 78 out of 110, 14-16 year old pupils in a comprehensive school who declared their willingness to consult at least one member of the staff. This left 29% of the pupils, who admitted to problems with which they needed help but who would not be prepared to make an individual approach to a counsellor or other member of the staff.

This probably represents a failure to make a meaningful relationship with a teacher rather than a breakdown of relationship at any particular age. D. Hargreaves, **Social Relations in a Secondary School** demonstrates the existence of two subcultures within one school and shows the strength of peer group pressures and values internalized in the home. There are those pupils who strive for some academic success and seek teacher approval and those who reject the acceptance of school values and gain peer group status by demonstrating opposition and hostility to learning and teachers. In forms where there is a high degree of rejection, 'the academically oriented boys are regarded by the teachers as conformists, whereas on the peer group level they are the deviants; and the 'difficult' boys whom the teacher regards as non-conformists are in fact the high status conformists on the peer group level'.[3]

It is from the educational non-conformists that the rejectors of counselling will come although their need for help may be as great, if not greater, than those who will willingly seek help from staff. Peer group pressure will ensure that individual members of that group will not refer themselves for help to a teacher and yet they will discuss their problems among themselves. If these pupils are to be helped, it will have to be by group counselling which not only enables the pupils to discuss problems with a teacher without 'losing face' but also creates a better informed group so that existing peer group support is modified towards positive instead of negative attitudes.

There is a sense in which all form teaching seeks to modify attitudes and create positive thinking but so much of our work in the classroom is directed towards cognition that emotional learning is often disregarded. To quote from E. Richardson **'The Environment of Learning'**: 'It is not that teachers wish to evade the task of educating the emotions as well as the intellect. Many contrive to find ways of doing both; and most teachers are aware of a conflict between the two kinds of obligation they feel towards their pupils — to provide discipline for the mind and freedom for the growth of personality. But the school as an institution almost forces the separation of these'.[4]

It is because of this division, so fiercely marked in the rejecting peer group, that group counselling is so necessary.

It would be wise at this point to define what I mean by group counselling, to try to cut a path through the terminology that has grown around group work and experience. Group counselling, guidance, psychotherapy, dynamics and procedures have all been used by writers, mainly American, to mean much the same thing, but I think it necessary to discriminate between group counselling, group guidance and group therapy.

Psychotherapy or therapy in the psychological sense I use to refer to the treatment of patients who are seriously ill, mentally or emotionally and who are receiving treatment in a hospital or a clinic. The treatment is distinguished from counselling by the setting and severity of the problem although there may be similarities in the techniques of treatment used.

Guidance is concerned with the presentation of facts probably of educational or vocational

opportunities, with encouragement of self understanding, adjustment and future planning by the individuals in the group.

It is within these bands of guidance and therapy that I place group counselling. It may consist of presentation of fact by the counsellor to the group exactly as in any teaching situation but with the qualification that role play and discussion will follow with the deliberate intention of involving all the individuals in the group in an application of the facts to themselves. Because of the counselling and discussion factor in this form of group guidance work, which starts as presentation of fact of a vocational or educational nature, may well end in a counselling discussion as members of the group introduce emotionally laden topics which other members of the group also feel need to be discussed.

Group counselling will be introduced with the deliberate intention of raising personal issues, opinions, attitudes, relationship problems etc., but what starts as group counselling may end as group guidance if the members of the group feel the problems raised can be solved by acquisition of information.

The definition I seek can best be summarised in the words of E. W. Christensen, **Group Counselling: Its Use and Potential;** 'Group counselling lies midway between group therapy and group guidance and is basically the same as personal counselling on an individual basis, with the very important addition of the interaction of other members of the group'.[5]

It is the interaction of pupils upon each other, in a controlled situation, which is the strength of group counselling. Young people frequently reject opinions offered by adults and then act upon them or reproduce them later as their own. This is noticeable in group counselling where pupils will often accept from their peers ideas and suggestions earlier offered by teachers and at that time rejected by the pupils. The diffident, the withdrawn, the isolates are often able to discuss in a group problems that they find it difficult to talk about in private interviews. Their initial contribution may only be in a 'me too' fashion but as they gain strength and courage from the group and realise that frailty is a common human condition, their participation becomes more vigorous and their anxieties and feelings of guilt diminish. Hoppock expresses this well in **Group Guidance, Principles, Techniques and Evaluation.** 'Lively group discussions offer students an opportunity to express their anxieties regarding problems and their pent up feelings, especially hostility, regarding the persons and conditions that, in their opinion, are responsible for their difficulties. Students who need release from such feelings often hesitate to express them because of guilt feelings. They may find, however, not only that the group helps them to verbalize feelings but also that group reinforcement gives them relief from guilt'.[6]

Group work and group discussion is increasingly used as a method of teaching in secondary schools and the sympathetic teacher of the humanities often creates a group counselling experience within the classroom, occasionally deliberately, more often by accident. I believe that there is a need for teachers to be better informed about group techniques and experience so that they can recognise what is happening in their lessons and be aware of, and sensitive to, the attitudes expressed by individual pupils. The group experience will probably help the distressed child but there may be a further need for personal counselling and friendship to be offered which the teacher should be able to recognise and to which he can respond.

Group experience is often given in Primary education but then withheld from Secondary school pupils until they are in their fourth and fifth years at school. Then Social Studies and Religious Education syllabuses often make a dramatic switch from the didactic to areas of personal concern, or the study of literature introduces feelings and emotions with which the pupils can identify and need to discuss. It is usually in these fourth and fifth years at secondary school that courses on 'personal relationships' are introduced or the school invites the Marriage Guidance Council to come and conduct a series of group discussions and counselling sessions on adolescent problems of relationship. These courses may be excellent but they should not be an isolated experience coming near the end of the school career but part of a continuous process. The need for peer group support does not

suddenly arise at the age of 14; experiences of friendship, of family, of authority, of learning are not more pressing in the fourth year than they are in the second. The growth of sexual desire and competence may add a new dimension to discussion with older pupils but the conflict between educating the intellect and the emotions is present at all ages and the non-conforming peer group pressures are building up in the lower age ranges although they may be more obvious in the upper. The isolated child, the withdrawn and the shy, do not suddenly become so at one particular age, their misery is with them throughout their school career.

If, as I believe, group counselling can make a positive contribution to efficient learning through educational and vocational guidance, can help to integrate the isolated and the non-conformers, contribute to education of the emotions and enable the teacher to gain a better understanding of his pupils, it is desirable that more schools introduce group counselling as a continuing part of the curriculum.

First year children need guidance on the schools traditions and expectations, on rules and expected standards of behaviour, on the school organisation and the functions of the adminstrative staff. It is not enough that they should be told these things once in a mass meeting and then expected to act upon the information for the rest of their school career. They need an opportunity to discuss their fears and bewilderment, to learn from each other how to cope with new friends, new subjects, homework, the sudden change from the security of one teacher in one classroom to the insecurity of many teachers in different rooms. Eleven year olds need help in personal and social adjustment just as much as fourteen year olds. They need to discuss ways of making and keeping friends, of relating to siblings and the family group, of living in a neighbourhood and of planning their leisure. If the staff of each secondary school devised a programme of guidance and counselling suited to the needs of the pupils, which would be continuous from the first year to the sixth, the conflict between intellectual and emotional education would diminish to the benefit of the school as an institution and the individual pupils.

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Language Experiences that Promote Reading

Roach Van Allen, Professor of Education, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona, U.S.A.

Dr. Allen is in great demand in the United States for lectures and workshops by those following or wanting to know more about the Language-Experience approach to reading.

What Is a Language-Experience Approach?
A language-experience approach to instruction in reading is one that makes no distinction between the development of listening, speaking, spelling, and writing skills. All are considered essential in the instructional program and are viewed by teachers as providing reciprocal reinforcement. All facets of language are used as experiences related to the reconstruction of printed materials. All experiences of a child which can be expressed in some media, but especially in oral language, are included as the raw material out of which reading refinement grows. During the instructional program, each child conceptualizes:

I can talk about what I think about
In a program devoted to the improvement of all aspects of communication, the thoughts of each child become the basic ingredients. The thoughts and language of other people as recorded in stories and books will influence the learner, but this influence is not fundamental to the beginnings of new learnings. Language meanings develop in the mind of the learner. They are modified, extended and elaborated through sources outside the learner. Printed materials are only some of the sources. Firsthand experiences provide most of the enrichment of thought and conversation.

What I can talk about I can communicate in some other way
Forms of expression of ideas vary a great deal but in most classrooms they are painting, drawing, modeling, construction, talking, dictating, and creative writing. Some teachers use such forms as dramatic play, rhythms and dramatizations, but too often these activities are interpretations of another person's ideas rather than expressions of the child's own ideas. Although painting, speaking, dictating, and writing continue to be the most popular and most personal forms of recording and sharing ideas in classrooms, all forms of self-expression should be utilized. Thus children participate in a variety of modes of communication and experience success in many ways.

Anything I dictate or write can be recalled through speaking or reading
Experiences with picture writing, dictating, and writing with letters of the alphabet help the child to recognize that writing is much more precise and comes nearest to recording exactly what an author has to say.

The abilities required for effective written communication do not emerge with **lessons only.**

They emerge as each child moves back and forth between writing and listening and speaking and reading. The whole development depends on oral communication that stems from the desire of a thinking individual to share his ideas.

I can learn to read some of what I dictate and some of what other people have written
The child, who from the beginning, has related speaking, listening and writing to the reading process begins to read naturally — just as he learns to converse with people he meets. Reading, for him, is not a separate subject in school but is a natural part of sending and receiving messages.

As I talk, dictate, and write stories, I use some words over and over, and some words not so often
Most children enter school with large listening vocabularies of words used by adults in their homes and communities and these high-frequency words are used in a variety of meanings. The instructional task is not **presenting new words** to children as a beginning step in moving them toward reading but a task of helping each child to:

— recognize the visual forms of words he uses in talking

— realize that most children use many of the same words

— understand that even authors who write stories for him to read, use these words over and over.

As I observe others write of my speech or write it myself, I see the same letters used over and over

When the phonetic elements of his own language are taught through experiences, the child learns phonetic understandings in a sequence **from** saying and hearing **to** seeing. This method ensures that the understandings are applied to **real language experiences** of each individual. Children make valid generalizations in acquiring language long before they begin analysis of that language.

Each letter of the alphabet stands for one or more sounds that I make when I talk

To develop the understanding that letters stand for familiar sounds, the teacher first records the oral language of the individual. As the child begins to explore writing, he uses basic phonetic understandings rather than spelling memory. Even though many of his attempted spellings are incorrect, he is able to apply some of the basic phonetic principles to represent **the sounds of his language**. Developing the understandings becomes a learning experience that will continue throughout life. None is completed in early childhood.

Children are released from anxieties about learning to read when they conceptualize the idea that speaking, writing and reading are all aspects of one thing — our language. They realize that most of the words found in the printed stories are the same ones they use in their own speech and writing. If a story deals with an idea that has some meaning to the reader or listener, word meanings will be enriched and clarified and vocabularies will be enlarged.

Most of the words I speak and write other people use when they speak and write things for me to read.

Children who dictate and write many stories and see their own ideas recorded at an early stage of development learn to respond to the **ideas** of authors when reading. This result contrasts with that of reading instruction in which an author's ideas are lost in the mechanics of trying to analyze words and relate speech sounds to printed symbols. In effect, these children read from the beginning as though they were conversing with the author.

Basic Framework for a Language-Experience Approach

A basic framework is needed to guide planning and to suggest pupil activities which will change and improve every child's language ability — including reading. Such a framework was developed over a period of years as the result of the pursuit of one central question: **What are the language experiences that can be extended in an instructional setting to make a difference in an individual's ability to communicate his ideas and his feelings?**

The framework which is the result of years of study suggests three areas for program planning:

1. **Extending experiences with words** — a focus on the continuing responsibility of the teacher to help each child have available more and more words and sentence patterns with which to communicate his thinking and his feelings.

2. **Studying the English language** — a focus on the continuing responsibility of the teacher to help each child understand the coding and decoding processes of his language, multiple meanings of words, personal style of authors, idiomatic expressions, and the many symbols other than alphabet symbols that speakers and writers of English use to communicate.

3. **Relating authors' ideas to personal experiences** — a focus on the responsibility of the teacher to help each child gain confidence in interacting with ideas and language of others.

Within each area of emphasis there are essential language experiences which must be fostered through self-selection processes and through direct teaching procedures. Twenty essential language experiences are extended through the program, **Language Experiences in Reading,** by Allen and Allen (Encyclopaedia Britannica Education Corporation, Chicago, Illinois, 1966-1969).

Essential Language Experiences

Procedures for developing a language-experience approach give each child a chance to express his thoughts, his ideas about things in his environment, his aspirations, and his notions of personal conduct. The child does these things in the following ways:

1. **Talking about topics of interest**
Each day there are opportunities for some children to talk about self-selected topics and interests on a personal basis.

2. **Discussing topics of interest**
Boys and girls engage in discussions of topics of interest as they arise. They respond and react to each other's ideas. The teacher and children identify topics that seem to have interest for many children. Some time every day is devoted to the development of discussion skills. Frequently other people's ideas are brought into the discussions through reading on the topic.

3. **Listening to the language of many authors**
Daily opportunities arise to listen to stories and poems. The teacher reads and children listen to recordings and films. They become acquainted with many sentence patterns not in their natural speech upon entering school.

4. **Dictating stories and poems to the teacher or other adult**
The teacher or another adult records stories and poems dictated by the children about paintings, personal experiences and from their imagination. Individual rather than group compositions are emphasized.

5. **Telling stories**
Stories are taped during story-telling time, as well as interesting conversations to be played later for the children's enjoyment. The teacher serves as a model for story telling and encourages children to develop and tell stories of their own.

6. **Exploring writing and writing independently**
Children have opportunities and materials to explore writing as a recreational activity — their names, words they can copy, and eventually their ideas.

7. **Authoring books**
Children dictate their ideas and feelings or do their own writing of them for individual and class books. These books are placed in the classroom library for browsing and sometimes are made available for children to take home. Authorship of individual books is the culmination of an essential language experience for the child.

This essential experience means the valuing of the child's ideas and feelings; expressing those ideas in words, observing and/or feeling the words being written with the letters of the alphabet, hearing the same words read back at a later time, and gaining an awareness that all reading material is talk that has been written.

8. **Relating reading to talking and writing**
Each day children hear some of their own stories read to illustrate the relationships between talking, writing and reading. They listen to other stories and gain an awareness that other authors use many of the same words and phrases they use.

9. **Expanding vocabularies**
Children expand their vocabularies as they view films without words and make their own commentary; as they walk together in the community and learn to describe their world; as they sing songs and play games that repeat words that they have never used before; and as they play with blocks and accessory toys with housekeeping materials in the doll house assuming roles of people that use different vocabularies in their work and in their imagination.

10 **Reading in the environment in which they live**
Each day children have opportunities to test out their reading abilities. They gain confidence as readers as they observe:

— weather	hot or cold?
	wet or dry?
	windy or calm?
— plants	green or brown?
	dead or alive?
	large or small?
— time of day	early or late?
	morning or afternoon?
	dark or light?
	happy or sad?
— faces of people	smiling or frowning?
	serious or joking?

— texture smooth or rough?
fuzzy or prickly?
slick or sticky?

— colors, sizes, shapes
— feelings, actions
— signs on the way to school
— popular brands on television programs
— names of stores in shopping centers
— some of the words dictated in stories
— words in newspapers and magazines
— stories written for children to read.

11. **Developing an awareness of common vocabulary**

As dictated stories are displayed in the classroom, children will begin to recognize that some of the words are used by almost everyone who talks. They can find these words in the stories whether they can recall them or not and are helped to understand that much in their own language is also others' language. From this point on, many children begin to see these same words in printed materials such as library books, newspaper ads, and stories projected on filmstrips.

12. **Increasing sensitivity to style and form**

Experiences in observing, feeling, tasting, hearing, imagining, and listening to literature provide daily contacts with the ingredients of language that result in the style and form of sensitive writers. Children learn to listen to the beauty of language and to the content.

13. **Studying words**

Each day the teacher calls attention to the sounds of words and invites children to repeat those which give some children difficulty. As children dictate their stories, the teacher talks informally about relationships between the sounds we make with our voices and the letters of the alphabet selected to record them.

14. **Reading stories and books**

As soon as children can read some of the simple things they dictate and write, they should be encouraged to read them to an audience. This experience will lead naturally to the reading of the stories and poems of other authors in an audience situation.

15. **Using a variety of resources**

As children share experiences and tell stories, they are helped to understand that people share their ideas and feelings in many ways — by talking, writing, painting, composing music, taking photographs, and in other ways.

16. **Comprehending what is heard and read**

Each day children listen to instructions and carry out plans developed through discussion. They may work from these instructions as a means of developing the ability to follow the details of language from a person not present in the classroom. Through these experiences they learn to discuss the meanings of words in context and the thoughts in passages or whole selections.

17. **Summarizing**

Each day some children tell stories that may or may not be related to paintings. They are encouraged to tell the whole story and, if long and involved, to choose one or two ideas for the teacher to write. This experience in summarizing their own thoughts develops listening and reading ability and in selecting the main impressions, the outstanding ideas, and some of the details.

18. **Organizing ideas and information**

After walks and field trips, children may in sequence briefly restate what happened. They can also view a film and simply restate what happened in the order that they remember. The statements can be recorded in writing or on tape and then tested against the film when it is shown again. A camera and tape recorder may be taken on a field trip to record the events and the explanations. The information gathered through the pictures and on the tape can be organized into a class book or a bulletin board display.

19. **Integrating and assimilating ideas**

As children listen to stories, look at films and filmstrips, and hear recordings of stories and music, they have continuous opportunity to comment on their personal experiences and feelings as they relate to what they are hearing and seeing. They talk about things **like** and **not like** what has happened to them. They see and hear their own experiences elaborated and

extended in many ways. They should begin to feel that reading is an extension of personal experiences.

20. **Listening and reading critically**
Continuing contact with the ideas of the peer group and those of many other authors provides opportunities to sort out those ideas that are **fact** or **fiction,** that deal with the **real** and the **unreal,** and events that **did happen** or **might have happened.** Recording actual information through paintings, dictation and writing is important; but it is just as important to provide a learning environment that includes and welcomes imaginative ideas and language. Children should have experience in sorting out the differences and recognizing the values of both.

Re-definition of Reading
In the broad field of reading instruction as it relates to total communication, the emphasis on a basic framework of language experiences is accompanied by a re-definition of reading as 'an extension of personal language.' This definition gets to the fundamental problems of **valuing** the thinking of boys and girls, regardless of how limited;

accepting the real language of boys and girls, regardless of how divergent from standard English used in textbooks;

encouraging boys and girls to express their thinking in many forms — talking, painting, modeling, dramatising, constructing, dictating stories and poems, and writing creatively;

representing the thinking of individuals in written form by taking dictation and encouraging writing for pleasure — thus assuring a measure of success at all times and at all stages of language development;

reconstructing (reading) the written material which reflects the thinking of boys and girls in the classroom — individual books, class books, newspapers, magazines — and then comparing their ideas and language with those of other authors;

influencing the thinking and the language of boys and girls through the use of multiple resources — books, films, recordings, study prints, study trips, television, radio — so that their talking, listening, writing, and reading will mature in accordance with their inner drives, ideals, and personal goals.

What a child can hear, say, observe, and write of his own experience and imagination is as important in this definition as his ability to reconstruct the thinking and the imagination of other people. Children develop mature concepts about what reading really is in the world about them, such as:

Its values in their own lives.

The skills they need to develop in order to achieve their reading purposes.

The relationship of reading to thinking.
The stimulation which reading can give to creative living.

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Mass Media

A study of the Media of Today

John Mash

'Media' may be defined as 'anything serving as an intermediary, agent or instrument'. From this it can be seen that a medium may be explained as 'an intervening element through which forces act, impressions are conveyed etc.'

These two definitions suggest the popular thesis that 'the medium is the message'. That is to say that the content of a medium is not the governing factor, the medium itself is. The effect of this thesis will be explained later, in relation to specific media.

Any form of media is an extension of our person. The telephone, or telegraph, for example is an extension of our voice. It enables us to communicate over an extended distance. This is just one example of how many media have extended our abilities. We are living in what may be called the Electronic Age, and it is through the general medium of electricity that we have extended our central nervous system into a global embrace. Thus, by abolishing space and time as far as our planet is concerned, in effect we are heading towards the idea of a Global Village.

Before we can discuss the effects of media we must have some means of classifying into groups. This is done by considering their effect on observers. If a medium is well filled with data, leaving little to be filled in by the observer it is said to be high in definition and is known as a hot medium. Conversely, if a medium leaves much to be filled in by the observer, it is said to be low in definition and is known as a cool medium. Hot media are therefore low in audience participation and cool media are high in audience participation.

The state of the civilisation on which a form of media is imposed will affect it's 'temperature'. That is, the more backward a country is the 'hotter' the medium will be. The Electronic Age we are in has tended to cool down mass media. The automation brought by electricity has allowed more time for involvement in our lives and things around us.

Marshall McLuhan, in his book 'Understanding Media' goes as far as to say that we are within conceivable range of a world automatically controlled by the use of mass media. As an example he states that it could be said, 'We can program twenty more hours of T.V. in South Africa to cool down the tribal temperature raised by radio last week'. This is a far reaching concept, but coming from a specialist in analysing media it certainly gives some idea of the hold mass media could have.

The five forms of mass media which I am going to discuss are those which, I feel have had the greatest effect on our society. They are television, radio, the press, the cinema and advertising, as a medium itself and how it uses the other four media. The medium of the press covers not only the daily newspapers but also the periodical magazines. The press is the successor to the book form of print. The printing method was rearranged and took on a 'mosaic' form. This is most noticeable in newspapers where pieces are placed together with adverts to form a kind of mosaic in print. This mosaic form was adopted in order to cool down an otherwise hot medium. Both books and newspapers are confessional in character, and thus create the effect of the inside story by their mere form, regardless of content. The book, because of its content, gives the reader the 'inside story' of the author. Whereas the newspaper's content gives the inside story of the community in action. Being part of the community we have a natural interest in newspapers. An interesting point is that people who have witnessed an event reported, or are involved in a report, immediately turn to that section. The reason for this is the pleasure they obtain mentally from a literal playback of their experience in a different media. It is almost as if they were reliving the event. The use of the press media varies however. The Western World uses the press to involve the public, and lead them towards a private point of view. This is achieved by the use of written articles as well as news, and the availability of the public to comment by letter on the content. In Russia, however, the press attempt to exclude the private point of view, and to use it more for the promotion of their economy. They use the press in an attempt to

align public opinion. This is shown by the comments of three great Russian statesmen. Lenin said 'A newspaper is not only a collective propagandist and collective agitator, it is also a collective organiser'. Slightly more to the point, Stalin said of press '. . . the most powerful weapon of our Party'. Finally Krushchev said he felt the press was '. . . our chief ideological weapon'. The use of the word 'weapon' shows the feeling of Russia about the press. The belief of the press as being a weapon is also bourne out by the recent attacks on the British Press, by Russia, as being used by the Government for spying, and suchlike. They could only believe this if they use their press in the same manner.

It is true that the Western World also uses the press as a weapon. But in this case it is not the Government who uses it in this manner, it is the advertising sponsors. They use the entertainment value of news reports to capture advertisement readers. Advertisements now form an important part of the media of the press. The press survives on advertisements, for without them, newspapers would be very drab and plain, and give no attractive form to attract readers. The press then is a very important media, it forms a voice for the society, and a chance for the members of the society to become involved in communal participation. But this leads to people placing too much faith in the press, not believing that it could be misused, as it is sometimes.

The medium of the cinema (films) has seen a change in 'temperature'. The old silent films were relatively cool because they involved the observer due to the lack of sound. They were still fairly hot compared to other media because of their high definition. When sound was added this 'Hotted' up the cinema greatly, because the sound increased the definition. Then along came the use of Technicolour which lowered the photographic intensity and made it easier for the audience to participate. That is it made the film medium more like real life. Thus the cinema is cooling down in comparison to when sound was introduced. The new trend in films, started by 'Room at the Top' is also cooling down the medium. They are introducing a kind of cool realism to the cinema.

The high definition of the cinema is easily seen when it is considered that a large number of books have been 'filmed'. In one instant the film can reproduce pages of description in the original book, and this information is on the screen for some time giving the observer a chance to see it as a whole, instead of fragmented as it is in book form. It is this high definition which requires everything presented to the film camera to be exact. When a film is made of a past era great care is taken to be precise in the scenery and costumes because, due to the high definition, the film will be open to scrutiny. On the other hand, because of their lower definition, Television and the Theatre can approximate in scenery and costume because they evade scrutiny. The popularity of the cinema has had an effect on the book form. Just as the photograph made artists tend towards abstract and sculptural art, so the film has made authors tend to use depth symbolism in an attempt to evade the film medium.

I will now consider advertising, in order to keep Radio and Television which were both born out of the Electronic Age, together. A great deal of money is spent every year on the medium of advertising. This money is spent by producers who are in search of a method of realising the aim of a collective consciousness as an extention of the human sensory system. The methods that are used are almost brainwashing, working on the principal of assertion due to repetitive barraging. This is easily seen on Television which adapts itself to the aim of a collective consciousness because it is a cool, participant medium. Adverts are repeated over an evening's viewing, and this leads to it being registered in the sub-conscious. The picture form of advertisement works the best because whilst other trivialities, in the form of speech or visual effect, hold the attention of the observor the picture of the product affixes itself in the subconscious. Thus although many people believe they cannot be persuaded by attractive adverts, their sub-conscious is storing away the information and when a choice of purchase arises the sub-conscious will make the final choice.

The modern trend is to make advertising a cool medium by presenting the product as an integral part of general social purposes or process. In this way it is attempted to make the consumer feel as though he needs the product. This trend

is also making the adverts more attractive forming them into a complex iconic image. When these adverts appear in magazines the effect is astounding. The feature articles of the magazine are fragmentary, and when placed alongside the intense form of the advertisement they seem rather weak and pale. In other words the ads dominate the reading. This can easily be seen by looking at any magazine, often the adverts occupy more space than the feature and the eyes are automatically attracted towards the adverts, before the feature article.

An interesting recent development in bill board advertising were the baked beans adverts. First of all the adverts showed a can or a plate of beans with the caption 'Beans means Heinz'. After the public had been exposed to these for a while they were replaced by a plate of beans with the caption 'You know what beans means'. Another instant of this type of advertising is a recent whisky advert showing a bottle of the brand concerned with the caption 'Don't be vague, Say Haig'; these were then replaced by just the neck of a whisky bottle with the caption merely saying 'Don't be vague'. This type of advert must have a terrific sales effect, because it involves and amuses the public. Television is the medium best suited to advertising. Since both media are cool they easily embrace one another and combine to the best effect.

The media of the radio was once regarded as cool. It gave high audience participation but this was due more to the programme form than to the type of media. With the advent of the very cool media of television, the radio became relatively hot. It thus tended to turn away from light entertainment towards programmes of information and education. This in turn hotted up the media even more. Therefore people began to use the radio as a form of background, and this caused the radio to turn more towards the needs of the individuals. So the change has been a transformation from the previous form of group listening that is said to have 'emptied the churches' to private and individual audiences. In effect the radio is used to provide a 'private world' environment, shutting off the outside world. The fact that it caters for the needs of individuals, at all times of day, is borne out by the large number of transistor (hence portable) radios and the existence of more than one radio per household. Thus the radio is used to provide a private environment and with the invention of transistors it is possible to carry this environment about with you. The medium of television is graded as being cool, this is not only because of the material it presents, but because of its method of presentation. There is more truth in the fact that the type of material is governed by the method of presentation. If the television image is subjected to close inspection, it will be revealed that the image is comprised of numerous minute 'dots' of light. The eye cannot take in all of the dots because of the high rate of change that they are under going. Thus the eye only receives a minimum of information and the brain has to assemble the information given and supply missing information to form the image. Therefore an observer is participating in the media, before the media contains any information. It is therefore obvious that the medium must be a cool one.

It is this high degree of participation that has shaped much of today's society. Young children when reading a book normally have their eyes about 6½in. from the page. This is far too close and is caused by the attempt to involve themselves in depth, as with T.V., by presenting all their senses to the book. But print only calls for the visual sense, and rejects all the others. The children, therefore, do not get the same satisfaction from a book as they do from T.V., and reading tends to drop off in favour of television.

The coolness of television calls for a different type of acting to that of the stage or films. T.V. acting has been made intimate by the degree of participation of the media. The audience almost enters into the life of the T.V. actor. This is helped along by the camera being able to follow the actor about, bringing the actor and the viewer apparently closer together. The depth of involvement is much less in the cinema and hence film stars are known by their name, not the role they take. Television actors, on the other hand, are recognised by the role they take rather than their own name. The low definition of the T.V. image also explains why few T.V. personalities are recognised when seen in public. A common comment is, 'doesn't he look different'. The high participation of television is now used to

train surgeons, by allowing them to view operations 'live' on closed circuit T.V. The high degree of participation gives them the feeling that they are performing the operation themselves.

The effectiveness of mass media as teaching aids has been tested at a college in Toronto, Canada. Four random groups of students were taught the same lesson (about pre-literate languages) through four different media. These were Radio, Television, Lecture and Print. To bring all of them to the same level, all but print were given in a straight verbal flow without discussing the topic, allowing any questions or the use of the blackboard. Each group was taught in this manner for half an hour, after which they were given a short quiz to test the amount of information retained. As might have been expected T.V. and Radio were found to have far more effect than Lecture or Print; and T.V. came out well on top of Radio.

The experiment was repeated on new groups (of the same I.Q.) using the same subject but each media was allowed to use its own method of presentation. The Radio and T.V. dramatised the subject with auditory and visual features. The Lecturer used the blackboard and full class discussion, and the Print made imaginative use of typography to stress its point.

After a similar quiz, it was found that Radio and T.V. did far better than the Lecture or Print. But this time Radio came out above T.V.

The explanation of this reversal is that television is a cool medium involving participation, but when it is heated up it gives less opportunity for participation, and therefore performs less well as radio. These results would seem to suggest that the mass media could be used effectively for education. However it is not so simple as merely putting lectures on television or radio. The result would be the same as has happened in putting old films on T.V., that is a hybrid which is neither. Therefore, if mass media are to be used for education, a new approach is required.

A question that arises is 'What can T.V. do that a classroom cannot?' The answer to which is that T.V. can illustrate the interplay of processes and the growth of forms of all kinds as nothing else can.

A Cultural Polemic

Roger Vincent

During a college vacation, on holiday from education and teachers, I talked with a farmer about his work.

Recently coming into a run-down farm, the farmer had felt it necessary to 'walk the land' before attempting to get down to work. He saw that although the equipment, tools, and machinery were in good order, and the ground was generally healthy, the farm had gradually decayed because of the way things were done.

The old stone farm-house with its single large living-room had been sacrificed for new steel and concrete sheds and cattle-pens. By ignoring crop-rotation, the most productive fields had been strained under the intensive propagation of a single crop, year after year, leaving the soil bare and dried-out. The best pastures at the top of the hill had been overgrazed by selected stock; whilst the fields in the valley which had different grass, because they were hilly or damp and far from the yard, had been given over to odd and uneconomic stock — weaklings, runts, deformities, barren cows, and slow growers. Of these animals, most changed little, and some had died unnoticed; but since they were left-out in all weathers, a few had grown tough and hardy, and had reverted to a wild state.

Ignoring the free advice offered by the Ministry's new agricultural policy of Cheap-Food-for-All, the previous farmer had fed his stock by starving the land. Had the farm survived the Foot-and-Mouth epidemic, he could have sold-out for an enormous profit. Thus, the critical situation determined that the new farmer should work from a radical eugenics.

"Agricultural growth starts from grass roots," he told me; "Besides knowing the elements, you've got to know their uses — in fact, their natural evolution. A young farmer needs an awareness of life, and a sensitivity to the land, before any accumulation of knowledge of method and techniques. We've the systems and machinery to dominate nature if we wish, but when you take no account of natural occurrence, eventually there's a

kick-back, and your process breaks down.

"But it's not a question of first learning it all, and then getting on with the job. This farm needs a great amount of work to get it into shape, but I can't do that without money, and the money won't be coming until the farm is in production. So it's got to happen together — the learning and the working; and every little activity is significant, whether or not it's directly related to the production of tangible result. The idea that the more you produce in one particular direction, the more you develop, sees growth as occurring in only those activities that actually produce something. But every thing is relevant: look at the branch of a tree, for example. In that it diverges from the main trunk, a branch is more than merely a diversion, for it articulates the whole structure, and gives direction toward fruition. And beneath the surface, a discernable continuity leads the activity within it, and relates the diverging productions.

"I want to breed a dairy-herd here, so I've bought a dozen young calves to start. They won't be milking for a couple of years, and there's no grazing ready for them yet; so getting that ready is the first job. I've some lambs and beef-cattle and root-crops to provide some money until that time. You see, the activity has to occur simultaneously with the preparation for it. An old farmer told me about it when I was starting out. He said farming 'isn't a means to living, but is identical with the operation of living a life which is fruitful and inherently significant.' What he said applies here: though the calves are the important things, without the rest they won't be cows.[1]

"The first thing I've done — after the house — is clear this yard, and put a gate through that wall. It doesn't look much because there's nothing to see. If I were asked to show what I'd done, we would have to walk through the re-defined space to reach the gate where the wall was removed. But if I pointed to the new passage of space through the yard, between the pasture and milking-parlour, you'd probably think: 'Oh no, the air was made by God or physics.' Yet by your being there you have employed it, and proclaimed useful what has been done. 'Show me what you've done,' said the foreman walking through the clearing to the lumberjack.

"It's the same with a field of beet: you plant, then take out the stragglers, giving you less than when you started. It's only by reducing that you can expand, and it's only by rejecting that you can accept. But this doesn't mean concentrating on one thing at the expense of another. No, you have to choose as many things as possible that will encourage all the other parts of your farm to develop. And it all depends on your discretion. Take the cows: those I hope to have here will not be the maximum number per acre. They'll yield less milk than I could get by more intensive methods, but they cost less to run, and will give a higher net output in cash terms.

"It's a matter of efficient utilisation — like a bulb. In the autumn, when the last flower has died away completed and gone to seed, the bulb undergoes a process of absorption when it takes in foodstuffs, and stores them in preparation for the next blossoming — which won't come until next spring. But the embryonic buds are forming there. If you peel off the bulb's coverings, you can find them. But in doing so, you expose the inside and the unformed shoots to the rigours of winter; and by removing the bulb from it's environment, you probably destroy it, for you inspect it outside its natural state, and also in conditions now alien to its growth. And you've broken a continuity which can't be re-established if the hair-roots are damaged at the unearthing. Best to leave them, and have faith. They've been growing long before there were horticulturists. It's our job to encourage what occurs, not demand evidence of continuing production. This is the axis of the seasonal round of farmwork."

"If we walk around the land," continued the farmer, "you can see how movement supports everything, and all things express movement. There's no division between object and action, for nothing exists devoid of movement. By movement I mean the life-quality that gives the particular growth of anything. The word 'tree' is really a verb: the tree growing. 'Child' means someone who is learning.

"I remember as a boy in school watching a small sapling push its way through the tarmac playground outside, straightening its coiled stem,

and extending into the blustering wind, but also into the light. Eventually I could see in the tree great strength and flexibility — 'a performance beyond that of this school,' I thought. I loved to watch the branches wave slowly across the window, stop, and move back, bending with the wind blowing. In that little shoot that came out of the ground was a tenuity anticipating the present continuity that the tree now expresses. It's strange that often we have to wait a while for the manifestation, even though evidence of its potential occurrence is clear. Old Capability Brown never saw his landscapes in a grown state."

A dark-green field of clover was dotted with purple and white.

"Yes," the farmer replied, "they are beautiful flowers. A rose or a chrysalis are certainly interesting and beautiful things, but they exist only as part of a process that results with the production of seed — that's why they're beautiful. The biologist may dissect the flower and the chrysalis, and exhibit their aspects on charts and microscope-slides, but he's cutting-up, and I have to worry about the continuity of the whole process that the resulting production sums-up. What's important is not the flower, nor the seed, but the whole process — what's produced in that process, and given back to the ground by the clover. The value of this crop is not the production of itself, but what it puts into the soil. You can measure this only by next year's yield of cereal. Without the cereal, the clover is meaningless; without the clover, the cereal eventually exhausts the soil.

"It's this consideration that controls what we do with the calves. It's where they go that directs how we rear them. They all look alike till you get to know them. They're all made of the same bits; but the way they're put together gives them their particular values. You've to first acknowledge each one's characteristics before trying to do something with it. That's a simple matter of starting from the natural qualities any of them has. It's a matter of judgement. We're not in this business to measure isolated ability, but to encourage growth. Each one's classification in different tests of back-fat, leg-length, neck, and the rest, will all be different; but it's encouraging their development that's important, not establishing the degree. Quality in any one aspect is valueless on it's own, and important only in that it indicates growth. A young stockman put it well; he said that 'great efforts are exerted in determining the limits of potential, but the farmer isn't concerned with limits, but with directions, and the means by which they will best grow."[2]

"That's true enough; and the growing is THEIR activity. The most effective method of cultivation is to water it, fertilise it, then stand back and watch it grow. The animal's privilege of growing supercedes the breeder's job of rearing. The thing is to know when to leave it, otherwise it's like trying to make a kid crawl now he's standing up.

"I've learned a few lessons on this from working sheep with the dog when we go over the pasture to count them. As soon as they see him, they bunch; then they're off round the field. The dog cuts across the back of the flock to the other side, swinging round until he steers the leaders to the edge of the field; then he runs the flock into a corner. He lets them slip past me along the hedge, in ones and twos, so as I can count them and have a look at them. Any that need treating for foot-rot and worms he cuts out, and separates them into a small bunch — usually only a few, three or six. We take these into a hurdle for treating. The dog runs behind in an arc until they can see him at the side, then he cuts back along his path to the other side again. In this way he defines the rough direction he wants them to go. They move forward slowly, keeping an eye on him as he lies flat. If they begin to break on the far side, he goes around and lies there. If they wander off on his side, or stop, he moves forward a little on his belly, or raises his head. It's all done by suggestion: the sheep have no sense of enclosure about the hurdles. The dog knows just how little to do, and when to do it; and when to hold back and let it go — to give them a chance to follow the suggestion.

"So we let the calves grow with a little help. Just as when I knocked down the wall for a gateway, and another wall was built from the stones — I supply the materials, but the new wall is someone else's claim. That applies to the whole

farm too: I can do all the necessary jobs, and supply all the essential parts, but it's the continuity that makes it all work or not."

"There are lots of things to be brought together on this farm, but sychronisation is not a matter of time, but of continuity. It's somehow working from a sense of development, beyond having specific goals that must be reached in a certain time. Working from a consideration of time you cut, divide, and stop; beginning with a feeling for evolution you relate, interrelate, and create. What is wanted is not just activities integrated, but activity that is integral at the start. In my job there's no division between work and leisure: all is concern and activity.

"There's certainly much to be done here, and I don't know if I shall get my herd established; but it's not so much whether you get anywhere particular, as what happens along the way. Working with materials like soil and machinery, and crops and animals, enables me to live beyond the category-fixations of modern life, because I'm constantly dealing with indeterminates. This means I'm working beyond the physical through the physical.

"If I couldn't be a shepherd, I would be a ferryman," said the farmer.

Quotations:—
1. John Dewey.
2. Timothy Rees.

WHO'S WHO

INGEBORG ASSMANN, Ph.D.
Contributor to January Issue.

1967 Ph.D. University of Southern California, U.S.A. 1964 M.A. Mountclair State College.

Fields: Sociology of Education, Comparative Education, History and Social Studies.

1950-1963 secondary and elementary school teacher, supervisor of student teaching in the German elementary and secondary school system.

1964-1967 teaching at U.C.L.A., California.
1967-1969 teaching at University of Heidelberg, Germany.

Since 1969 staff member, Ministry of Education, Baden-Wurttemberg.

Presently on a governmental research trip through the U.S.A. to assess the role and impact of the computer on American education.

1947-1963 connected with the International Textbook Institute, Braunschweig.

Co-founder of International Arbeitskreis Sonnenberg — member of phi caunda theta.

Published in International Yearbook of History Teaching, Braunschweig.

Ken Williams
Left school at 14 years and worked as an engineer and later as a sailor. Emergency training 1946 at Redland College. Six years teaching in junior school and then taught in one of the first comprehensives built in the city, Locklease school for 16 years. Now research associate at Bristol University, School of Education. At present looking at counselling and patterns of pastoral and hoping to produce a paper in 1971.

John Mash
Studying for higher national diploma in electrical and electronic engineering at South East London Technical College as part of an apprenticeship to the Ministry of Technology. Hobbies modern music, poetry and climbing.

Roger Vincent
Born 1942 Bath Somerset. Spent my early childhood in a Wiltshire country town. Moved

to Bristol, attending a local grammar school for seven years.

At eighteen, I began four years in a college of art. Followed by two years of odd jobs — farming, grasscutting, and working in a boat yard, and a slaughterhouse — gaining some real experience of life that my formal education had omitted.

In 1946 I began a teacher training course at Kesteven College of Education, Lincolnshire, and wrote this article in the summer holiday the following year.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Christians in the World

John Keating
Geoffrey Chapman 8s 6d.

Education that deserves the name must help students to think about man in relation to community — family, state, world. Certain questions must be voiced and should be allowed to reverberate. 'The Christian in the World' does so in a Christian (Roman Catholic) context.

Unhappily, the church generally and the church of Rome not least has often and not without cause been suspected of seeing the role of the Christian in the world as either or both of two activities — bemoaning the evil age or so manipulating the levers of power as to make it a more agreeable one for the church.

This book shows how far the post-Vatican council church of Rome has moved from these positions. Based on a simplified form of the Council document, 'The Church in the Modern World,' it provides a framework for discussion and discovery of personal and community attitudes to questions of purpose and human significance such as politics, social responsibility, work and family life.

A Protestant reviewer found the analysis of topics helpful and clarifying; he disagreed only rarely with religious and political assumptions. Especially welcome is the book's insistence on taking human values into account at every stage and with every topic. The systematic treatment helps in leading discussion and selecting research topics. The excellent questions are even more provocative in such a context. Inevitably the treatment is rather thin, especially if one has not access to the Council document. Nevertheless many teachers will find the book helpful in adding depth and direction to group discussion of social questions.

Peter Cousins.

Colston Papers No. 20
Towards a Policy for the Education of Teachers

Edited by Professor William Taylor
Butterworths. Price 86s.

This volume contains the papers, responses and extracts from the discussions arising from the symposium held in Bristol between April 5th and 12th 1968, and is part of the Colston Research Society's series.

The role of the teacher in the present and future requirements of our society is explored in the first part of the book.

The second part is concerned with the education of teachers.

Part three provides papers on the relationships between partners involved in teacher education — the government, the universities, local authorities and the teaching profession. One contribution in this section is concerned with teacher education in America.

In the final section the editor reports on recent research on the education of teachers, and extensive bibliographies are provided.

Sir William Taylor reminds us in the preface, of the traditionally English lack of planning in educational matters: no clearly defined policy has prompted the considerable changes in the education of teachers in the last twenty years. He hopes that the exchange of ideas between individuals and groups that have power in the educational field, brought together by this symposium, could be 'a first step along the road to the formulation of policy'. Sir Philip Morris in his introductory address hopes for a design for 'a genuine profession of teaching.'

Among the distinguished authors of the papers, there are those who inspire, have vision and put forward original practical ideas, some air their particular personal bias but are nevertheless thought-provoking. All contributions are worthy of study and should fulfil the purpose envisaged by the editor.

The contributors examine issues familiar to those engaged in teachers education — the meaning of education, what cannot be left to chance in schooling, the kind of teachers we need in the future, the role of the teachers, the balance of studies in the college course, residential establishments, assessment, in-service training and an education degree.

The questions of the authority of the teacher, the relationship and responsibility of the universities in teacher education, educational independence, the curriculum and the pressures brought to bear on curriculum planning, are constructively appraised by many of the contributors, and there is one paper on community schools.

Some writers survey the history of the development of universal education and the development of educational ideas in relation to the present day changed pattern of living with its accompanying moral problems. Some favour an analytical approach of a philosophical nature, and there is a statistical analysis of the economics of teacher education.

Colleges of Education are criticized for the confusion of their aims, their lack of intellectual quality and their traditionalism, but the difficulties they encounter are appreciated by those writers with first hand experience in this field.

The review of available research on teacher education in the fourth section of the book is an indication of the interests of those involved in the education of teachers. The areas in which research would be profitable could also be deduced from this catalogue.

The commentaries are valuable to the volume in that ideas from the papers are here challenged and further developed and pratical suggestions are put forward both by these contributors and by those taking part in the discussions.

This volume is an important contribution to teacher education and should be in the hands of all those interested in this field.

J. Marjorie Scammell.

Education and Development in Latin America

Lawrence Gale
World Education Series
Routledge & Kegan Paul 1969
pp. 178; £1 8s (£1.40).

This book is the first in a new series concerned with Education in other countries, and has been prepared with students in colleges and departments of education in mind. The advent of the series reveals the growth of interests in Comparative Education, not only for its intrinsic interest, but because it is becoming increasingly evident that countries very often face common probems arising from population pressures, heightened aspirations and the desire to democratise school systems, involving re-organisation of schools and curricula.

The general editor is careful to point out that though problems may be common, the unique features of each country must be taken into account when solutions are proposed.

Mr Gale has done an excellent job with this volume which is surprisingly slender when one considers that it deals with the whole of Latin America. He has great skill in selecting and presenting the main points he wishes to make and does not lose himself in the mazes of historical detail. While he deals broadly with data related to the whole of Latin America, he illustrates his points by specific reference to Columbia and Guyana so that the reader is presented with a general analysis and statistics followed by what they mean when related to these two countries.

This book is to be commended for its lucidity and promises well for the series as a whole, particularly as the framework of analysis is to be the same for each volume which should make the series particularly useful for serious students and prove a valuable addition to the literature of Comparative Education.

Anne Dryland.

Backwardness and Educational Failure

R. Gulliford B.A. Senior Lecturer in Education, School of Education, University of Birmingham.
Publisher: National Foundation of Educational Research in England & Wales, The Meer, Upton Park, Slough, Bucks. 1969. Price 10s (Paper back ed.).
Cover design by Bryan Austin.

I have been working my way slowly through the eight chapters that make up this book — slowly, not because it is heavy going, but because every chapter — every paragraph has interesting matter that one is determined to assimilate; this subject matter is always demonstrably relevant and practical, and obviously arises from direct work with the children themselves in their problems of failure to achieve normal standards of education.

Mr Gulliford is a lecturer, nevertheless it is obvious from the practical way he attacks the problem of 'backward' and emotionally handicapped children, that he has his feet pacing eagerly among the schoolchildren for whom he seeks help and encouragement. Teachers and students may follow his instructions and suggestions in eager and creative experiments and discover en route new ways of tackling old problems. Particularly relevant here are his ideas and sympathetic observations on Backwardness in Reading (Chapter 4) in Spelling and Handwriting (so often complementary difficulties) in Chapter 5, and very original thinking simply expounded in Difficulties in Mathematics (Chapter 6). In all these problems Mr Gulliford makes one see the actual individual child's difficulties and shows how emotion can exert a bigger 'brake' on achievement, than the more obvious physical or mental handicaps of the child who is being helped to overcome difficulties in learning and doing.

This emotional 'brake', once recognised by the intelligent child and the child with a low IQ alike is thereby taken 'off' — thus released child and teacher together may successfully seek 'fresh fields and pastures new.'

Mr Gulliford brings to the support of his findings many well known educationalists and psychologists in a practical way for the reader by including at the end of each chapter the actual Book Titles and Publishers which can be enjoyed as 'Further Reading'. This makes for quick and relevant references for the reader to explore what may be a tentative idea needing practical confirmation. The subject matter in each chapter is like a constellation of stars, and the 'Further Reading' at the end of the chapters like an aura around each single star itself.

I wonder how many teachers and children will attack with a sense of adventure their educational failures simply from a careful reading of this book? Cheap at 10/- and well printed and produced it would halve our problems if sizes of classes were halved as well. The final chapter on 'Special Educational Provisions' points the way to special training of teachers — he gives four positive directives, and says 'We must ensure that many teachers have a basic knowledge of the children's problems and their remedies (in Educational Failure and Backwardness) and that some teachers must have a specialist knowledge'. A careful study of this book takes us realistically on the way to such a goal.

Mollie Smith.

English for Diversity

Peter Abbs
Heinemann 25s.

The opening sections of this book take the form of a series of essays which attack the schooling process, regret the alleged influences of the mass media and deplore the restrictive codes of language and behaviour which handicap working class pupils.

After a bridging passage, in which the author argues the case for regarding literature as the appropriate prophylaxis, the final two-thirds of the book are devoted to examples of children's writing, interspersed with commentary, some parts of which have been previously published.

Mr Abbs' dedication, and the imaginative disciplined responses of his pupils are heartwarming. Here, one feels, is teaching at its best, work to put alongside Holbrook, or 'The Excitement of Writing'; a tribute to the work of our schools sufficient to outbox Cox.

Yet Mr Abbs is caught in a contradiction. The very quality of his pupils' work negates his attack on the schooling system. In his first sentence he asserts that teachers 'compel active children into passive adults', a proposition with whose general truth I have a great

deal of sympathy. However, he then goes on to provide, in the children's work, evidence that this assertion does not apply either to those who are fortunate enough to be taught by him, or to himself as a presumed part and product of the system. To what extent does such creative teaching derive impulse from the restrictions imposed by other aspects of school life?

Mr Abbs could have taken a more deliberate sociological framework. He might, for example, have recognised that pupils and teachers alike are often involved in social processes beyond their control; that they experience, not necessarily at the same time or in the same subjects, different degrees of aspirationally related conflict, or that deplored aspects of schooling; competition, coercion; may represent ways of coping with the local and specific learning anxieties of a class or teacher in the context of their part in the school's overall organisational pattern.

The presentation of such an analysis would not of itself resolve the difficulties, though it would go a long way to meet them. Nevertheless the decision to challenge the social and moral authority mediated through the schooling system is, finally, personal. There are signs of a realisation that the authority systems of education are being called into question: by pupils, students, and teachers. Can legal authority (compulsary school attendance), operate without entailing educational authority, i.e. the enforcement of the curriculum diet? What are the sources of the schools' moral authority? Are they still valid? Do they sustain or conflict with those patterns of social authority seen as essential to the future development of local and national government? Are these patterns consonant with social authority patterns exerted through the examination system? Such questioning is vital.

For my money, Mr Abbs is both right and wrong when he argues that a school should resemble a creative workshop. Right in advocating creative workshops, wrong in thinking that 'schools' are adaptable to such a pattern.

If, as he implies on moral grounds, and I would hope, on educational grounds (i.e. in terms of more effective methods of learning), far more responsibility and freedom of choice is granted to the adolescent pupil, (freedom to choose his teachers, subject areas, courses, topics, homework, method of assessment, times and length of attendance, dress, etc.) then creative workshops are indeed a valid organisational response. But freedom means facing the possible consequence of non-attendance by a substantial majority of the pupils with whom Mr Abbs would most wish to work.

I am currently noting such a situation in which young full-time F.E. students have been offered a mid-week organised leisure option (photography, sailing, etc.). A substantial proportion of these students having been given such a choice simply do not attend. They prefer to use the time in other ways; getting on with swotting perhaps, to free their evenings. In this context it is as well to remember that the Government Social Survey (I) shows that if teachers took account of the wishes of parents and pupils, they would concentrate on just those utilitarian aspects of language (spelling, punctuation) which Mr Abbs would relegate to the background of his work.

Is there a middle way? Can new patterns of educational authority and control be devised which would enhance freedom and give creative teachers their heads, whatever their subject (for science teaching is facing the same problem: School Science Review Vol. 50), without depriving them of potential clients through the latter's making uninformed, socially constricted subject choices. Innovative methods of teaching in the primary school are one hope; remodelling secondary organisation is another.

R. L. Richer.

A Reveiw of 'Teaching is a Dialogue'

Grace M. Stanistreet
(Published October 1969)

'Teaching is a Dialogue' could well be sub-titled 'The Joy of Living and Learning'. It is a wonderful book and required reading for 'all who are concerned with growing human beings'. John Holt and others have made us aware that the current problems in education can be solved only when every teacher realizes that learning is a mutual experience to be shared by teacher and student. This means, of course, that teachers must have the courage to learn with their students, to make mistakes with their students, in essence to respond as well as initiate. Such courage is possible only in teachers who believe in their own individuality, imagination and creativity, and herein lies the real problem in education today . . . Not enough adults possess that kind of self-confidence! Grace Stanistreet, however, recognizes that every teacher possesses the potential to be a responsive and imaginative leader of students of all ages, and the wonder of her book is that it convinces the reader of this too. The entire book is written in letter form, giving the reader a feeling that he, too, shares the experience under discussion and will benefit from the discoveries.

This is a practical as well as inspirational text for teachers. There are innumerable ideas for dramatic exercises and games for all age levels, evaluation of the purposes and possibilities of such activities, and description of actual circumstances in which some of the activities were used to answer a definite need. For example, since make-believe is a common experience, children of varying language backgrounds can learn to relate through non-verbal improvizations. Later, word games can be used to help these same children find the words to describe their actions and feelings. The school assembly can be an exciting learning experience for adult and child, and Miss Stanistreet vividly demonstrates how we can make it so. In the final sections of the book, we begin to understand how to avoid the dangers of meaningless, time-wasting experience of the memorized play, in which the material is often inferior and the children are rewarded for exhibitionism rather than self-expression. The teacher learns how to improvise from existing material such as fairy tale and legend, and how to make such material meaningful and dramatic in terms of contemporary living. In the process, the children and the leader will have fun and will also learn something about themselves and their world.

But the most important aspect of this book is that it enables the teacher to undersand his own role in inducing the creative process. The author makes it clear that here is only an indication of the multitude of possibilities available to the creative teacher. The book serves as a springboard to the imagination, posing questions that challenge the reader to find the answers in the only way possible; by trying for himself.

A child in the Creative Arts Centre once explained: 'Acting is all about knowing who you are, what you are doing and why'. Learning is all about these things, too — or **should** be. 'Teaching is a Dialogue' shows how it **can** be.

Margaret Linney.

Themes:-
Edited by Rhodri Jones

The thought behind this selection of poems for Secondary children, that poetry should not be a remote subject, unrelated to other forms of English work is, in my view, excellent. My own reaction at the introduction to poetry was one of boredom, which was only dispelled when introduced to a short volume of modern poetry which aroused my interest because it was meaningful. Once my interest was caught, I was able to look again at poets such as Wordsworth and enjoy reading poets previously dismissed. In this series, poetry is directly related to life and within the understanding of childrens thoughts.

The editor of this book has gone further, choosing poems related to childrens personal thoughts, which can be used in the wide scope of all English work and social thought.

Moreover, the subjects dealt with show understanding of childrens ideas, being within their experience and are covered in depth. The choice of poems is within these themes and can be used, with careful choice, for all ranges of age and intelligence within the secondary school. With older children, the arrangement of poems could be used as it stands, because of the lines of thought which the editor has carefully developed.

Used with the teachers books, full of varied ideas for connected work, involving poetry as an aspect of a topic, there is a wide scope given for encouraging sympathetic discussion, more thoughtful creative writing or factual investigation. His excellent range of essay titles would be a great help to teachers.

Rhodri Jones has produced a set of poetry books, which could easily catch the interest of children, aiding them to bring out their own half-buried thoughts in a deeper way. The main inspiration for improved writing is interest, as with interest comes involvement, leading to reaction to poetry rather than a rejection of it.

'Conflict' deals with many subjects that children are aroused by, which I feel need discussion; conformity, authority, concience, fears, security and living with people. Both 'Conflict' and 'Generations' may help children towards a sympathetic attitude towards other people and the relationships between generations. 'Men and Beasts' deals not merely with descriptions of animals, but possible attitudes of animals and the relationship between animals and men. 'Imagination' is full of poems which could lead to creative writing, showing that imaginative writing need not merely be writing stories but shows that it can deal with ordinary things exaggerated within oneself.

Interest for writing could be aroused by well-led discussion alone, but points made in poetry are usually more emphatic than in prose and many of the poems within the editors choice are extremely evocative.

The editor, in selecting these poems, shows clear understanding of the wider sense of the meaning of education. He has produced a series of books, in which poetry is interesting, and which is able to deal with subjects which will awaken the ideas of children, by arousing sympathy with the poets ideas, showing that their own thoughts, experiences and fears are shared. It is a set of poems, children could be involved in. If used well by a teacher, these poems could be valuable in extending the writing, imagination and awareness of a child.

Geraldine Chilvers.

English Progressive Schools
Robert Skidelsky
(A Penguin Original 7s.)

Two reflections are prompted by this provocative little book: positively, the author has accurately placed his finger on several weaknesses of the Progressive School Movement; negatively, he has singularly failed to capture or appreciate its distinctive quality. If he had exerted himself rather more sensitively in that 'grand quarry of twentieth century progressive thought' as the New Era is described (p26), he might have produced a more valuable book — one which, while not ignoring the warts of Progressive Education, managed to comprehend its virtues.

Mr Skidelsky is of course quite right when he says: "Time and again we are forced back to this progressive lack of any social dimension. Society was seen as an oppressive monolith 'outside' human nature." (P.252). Until recently much of the English Progressive School Movement could be justly accused of lacking a relevant social ethic: he is quite wrong in assuming that no advance on this front has been made since 1945: one of his own glaring omissions is evidence of that, namely Wennington School under its founder and late headmaster, Kenneth Barnes, author incidentally of 'The Involved Man'! Again Mr Skidelsky is correct in pointing out that after the initial emphasis on child-centredness, activity methods, the Play way and so on, nothing very novel has emerged from the teaching methods in Progressive Schools, but he is surely plain wrong in asserting that '— it could be that guilt, resentment, unhappiness, provide the cutting-edge for all substantial achievement; conversely their elimination becomes a recipe for a well-adjusted mediocrity.' (P.26).

The best part of the book is the three profiles which the author draws of Reddie of Abbotsholme, Neill of Summerhill and Hahn of Salem and Gordonstoun — all of them effectively presented in their socio-political contexts.

In a final chapter Mr Skidelsky discusses Progressive Theory and Social Change and makes an observation with all the charm of a half-truth: 'If the public schools were designed to turn the sons of manufacturers into gentlemen, the progressive schools were designed to turn the sons of rentiers into aesthetes.' (P.247). And this is the tone of the whole study — some deft and probing criticisms, vitiated by a failure to understand the dimension in which progressive educational principle and practice germinate.

James L. Henderson.

Philosophy and Education
Glenn Langford
(Macmillan) 25s.

According to the blurb, this book provides 'an introduction to the philosophy of education for those with no previous knowledge of philosophy'. My own impression of it is that anyone who really had done no philosophy before would end the book no wiser than he began; on the other hand, someone who had read a little in the subject would probably end up a good deal crosser than he began.

I think the chief defect in Mr Langford's book is its incredible amorphousness. Chapter 7, for example (which is headed 'Knowledge') starts off with Mr Langford's own private distinction between what he calls the 'Linguistic Content' and the 'Semantic Content' of the meaning of words. (There is a chapter specifically headed 'Language and Meaning', but this is mostly

taken up with a confusing discussion of the difference between signs and symbols). The author does not make clear either what the Linguistic/Semantic distinction is, nor what use is to be made of it. Here is his own illustration: 'The word 'red', for example, is normally used to refer to red objects. But in the situation referred to in a previous chapter in which an invisible red lion wantonly terrified young children (we were told earlier that the animal was a 'pretend' lion invented by the child himself as part of a game, but let that pass) the word 'red' could not refer to the presence of a red object since the lion was invisible. Calling it 'red' then was a way of referring to the fact that the lion was as fierce as the flames of hell.'

Section 2 of the chapter explains at great length that knowledge is not a material object, and defines a propositional function. Section 3 maintains that we do not claim to know, but only to rationally believe. Well, speak for yourself, Mr Langford, but I claim to know that I had egg for breakfast this morning. And so on, through a series of vaguely related topics, including curriculum content, and discovery methods of teaching maths, to Section 12 (Knowing How and Knowing That). This section does not mention Ryle, but, right at the end, raises the question whether we can be said to **know** the truths of morals and religion. And do we? 'Fortunately' says Mr Langford, 'I do not have to pursue these difficult questions further, since . . . they will be the subject of a separate volume in the series'.

Chapter 2, which claims 'to give some explanation of why (20th century) philosophers have come to concern themselves so much with language' does not even mention Wittgenstein. However, to make up for that, we are given a very superficial account of Russell's Theory of Descriptions instead. I suspect that in the sentence about minds and bodies on p. 30, Mr Langford means the exact opposite of what he actually says.

Chapter 4 (The Aims of Education), after a section on Plato which would not be understood by anyone ignorant of platonic theories (i.e. Mr Langford's declared audience), mostly makes the point that the chapter heading is a metaphor, and then proceeds to an unilluminating discussion of metaphor.

In Chapter 5 (Education), having wandered on to the question of value judgements in education, he says 'The question of whether, and if so how, such judgements are to be made . . . is a difficult one to answer. I shall have very little to say on this subject'.

Chapter 8 (Teaching) carries the astonishing statement that 'it certainly does follow from the meaning of the word ('teaching') that in passing on beliefs about the world, the teacher is passing on those beliefs that he himself accepts as true' In other words, it is a **logical** impossibility for the honest agnostic to teach RE, or for the socialist economics master to transmit the arguments in favour of private enterprise! This will come as a surprise to those of us who thought this was a moral problem, not a semantic one.

The reference in the 'Further Reading' sections are not always accurate. For instance on p. 27, the student is referred to Ayer, when quite clearly Basson & O'Connor is intended. This is a pity, since, in many ways, the recommendations to further reading are the most useful part of the book.

David Burnard

DAVID BURNARD

Balliol as a mature student in 1953 and read PPE. Taught in a variety of secondary schools until 1967, went to Redland College to lecture, mainly in Philosophy in the Education Dept. of the College.

'Individual Morality'

James Hemming
Nelson, 261pp., 42s.
One of a series, 'The Natural History of Society', edited by Dr Alex Comfort.

The great virtue of this book is that it brings together for the reader disparate ideas and vague worries about the human predicament, examines them, and synthesizes a viable plan for the future. Dr Hemming places man in the context of the modern world and the latest cosmology, documenting his work also from psychology, anthropology, and history, and constructs from this analysis a kind of handbook to life today — a guide to living.

Many people feel dispondent about the future. They see the old order of society being swept away and no new order to replace it: only the permissiveness and violence of the younger generation, the inheritors of the earth. James Hemming, however, denies that man is worse than he was. He acknowledges the difficulties and dangers of our time, but confidently offers a blueprint for progress. As he sees it, the present turmoil of ethical standards is a healthy sign, because it indicates the abandonment of the bad old authoritarian systems and progress towards a new system which will be self-generative because its values will be fundamental to the human condition, and no longer arbitrary, rigid and imposed. He refutes the charge that the new freedom will be licence, with the crux of his argument: 'Freedom is the opportunity to use responsibility.' The arch-fiend in his mythology is authoritarianism, which denies the individual his moral freedom and therefore diminshes him as a human being, while the archangel is the converse, the climate of freedom in which the individual is personally responsible for his own moral choices and thereby fufils his highest function as a human being.

The neatness of this is pleasing but suspect. Its truth or falsity must depend on man's ability to make the right use of freedom, and to ensure this, James Hemming falls back, as one might expect, on education. The schools are inevitably of prime importance as shapers of future society, and Dr Hemming's advice to them is in line with modern educational thinking: his key words: confidence, creativity and responsibility. He rightly stresses the danger of fragmentation in school curricula, the endless transmission of snippets of information at the expense of the overall picture and the importance of each individual's place in it. He diagnoses delinquency as in part the manifestation of a resentment against society by those who feel there is no place in it for them, that they are failures. His proposed cure, that the least talented be made to feel as valuable to society as the most talented is what their teachers have been striving towards for a long time; in a book such as this more detailed advice would have been appreciated as to how this goal might be achieved in the modern competitive meritocracy which continually works against it.

This book will be particularly valuable for teachers, but it should not be read only by them. It is essentially a book for Everyman. One could raise sceptical arguments to counter Dr Hemming's; one could stick to one's pessimism; but this book brings it home that a positive approach is vital. Again and again Dr Hemming comes back to the individual and his personal moral responsibility. We cannot blame 'them' if we make a failure of life on this planet; it is up to each of us individually and communally to make a success of it. This is a challenge, but one which Dr Hemming believes the human race abundantly endowed to meet. The optimism of the

book is infectious, and in accordance with the argument it propounds, confidence in our ability to succeed may be the chief ingredient of success.

Paula Burnett

Paula Burnett, B.A., B.Litt.

Born 1942. Read English at Oxford and then edited a sixteenth century romance for postgraduate degree. Now teaching at Mayfield School, Putney, a comprehensive school for girls.

Society, Schools and Progress in Israel

Aharon F. Kleinberger,
Pergamon Press, 1969, pp. 337, Price-?

This is another book in the excellent series edited by Dr Edmund King. The editor has rightly stated that this book explains the deep rooted traditions and aspirations claimed as the justification for an astonishing rebirth of a new country whose constituent elements show more diversity than almost any other. Quite apart from the historical connection between Jewish history and Christianity, Islam, and world affairs, there are for educationalists, very special reasons for making a comparative study of educational and socio-political problems in Israel. This is a new and dynamic country which is destined to play a vital role in the middle-east.

Dr. Kleinberger's scholarly volume deals with these specific topics: Historical background; Society, Policy and Economy; Legislation and Politics of Education; The Schools; The Teachers; Higher Education and Some Major Problems.

In the historical background the author describes the organizational structure of the Jewish public system of education which the State of Israel inherited when it came into existence on termination of the British Mandate in 1948. 'Its peculiar pattern and inherent problems have set one of the persistent themes of the politics of education in Israel, despite the revolutionary transformation that her political situation, her population, and even the administrative structure of her school system have undergone.'

The writer also discusses the problem of population, absorption of immigrants, social stratification, social class and geocultural origin, government and politics, economic development, legislation and politics of education and the major problems of equality minority and identity and rightly ends up with the comment that 'perhaps it would be too much to demand of the young State of Israel, faced as it is with so many more urgent problems, that it finds a satisfactory solution to a puzzle which is baffling older and wiser politics: how to harmonize the conflicting claims of commitment to a venerable cultural heritage and response to the challenge of change.'

The organization, illustration and facts contained in the book make for lively reading. One could hardly ask for more accurate observation and analysis. The fact that the author writes of many interrelated problems is one of the major strengths of the volume. He provides a valuable historical perspective and follows this discussion with an equally important assessment of the present trends. The book will be found to be extremely useful to any educator interested in the society, school and progress in Israel.

K. C. Mukherjee.

The School Teacher in England and the United States

The findings of empirical research

R. K. & H. M. Kelsall
Pergamon Press, 1969. pp. 198. £1 5s.

This book deals with empirical findings from two countries on such questions as why people choose to teach, what society expects of its teachers, and the professional status of teachers. Data of this sort can be very helpful at a time when education and more specifically the training and role of teachers is so much under discussion. This volume may well help to dispel some of the myths about teachers and teaching and this in itself is valuable.

In addition, at a time when in England, in common with other European countries attempts are being made to change the structure and curriculum of schools, it is important that empirical evidence about the attitudes of teachers is made more widely available, since they are the main agents involved in making the changing systems function effectively.

Important as the availability of such data is, it should not be forgotten as the aI.E.A. Maths project has shown that empirical investigations carried out without careful first analysis of the assumptions underpinning the enquiries may well lead to misleading conclusions. Much of the data in this book is American and needs to be handled with extreme caution in an English setting.

With the cautionary note in mind, the careful compilation of research findings to be found in this book could be very helpful to students in training, to set them thinking about their future role and to researchers and others who want a quick reference to empirical studies which have been carried out.

Ann Dryland.

'Change in Art Education'

Dick Field
Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd. £1 5s.

On the whole this is a very sensible book. Dick Field is Senior Lecturer in Education with special reference to the teaching of art at the Institute of Education, London; and his book is one in a series called 'The Students Library of Education', 'designed', says the blurb, 'to meet the needs of students of Education.'

Well, only they can judge if it really does. I think, if I try to put myself in their shoes, that I should probably find it a helpful survey — though I wonder whether I should find the very valid points being made, being made **positive** enough.

Mr Field's thesis, very briefly, is that art education has less to do with Art (with a capital A) than with understanding through art. And he points out how the desire to produce 'works of art', from primary school to art college, tends to vitiate this process; and to make the whole exercise something less than it might be if the goals and objects of art education were more clearly defined and allowed to operate as a sequential whole throughout the continuing field of primary, secondary and further education.

Mr Field warns us at the outset 'that his book is not comprehensive' and 'reading among the books listed at the end is essential' for a serious consideration of the subject.

Nevertheless he does pretty well as an introduction to a large, complex and confusing subject.

Keith Matthews.

Scientific Types

J. G. Crowther
Barrie and Rockliff,
The Cresset Press, London. 70s.

Vast sums of money, £1,000 million annually in this country alone are spent on research and development in science. The public, who create this wealth, need to be convinced that they are getting value for their money; and have the right to demand of administrators, employers and statesmen that the pool of scientific talent is being wisely used. Scientists, like the rest of us, have different talents. Insight into their nature and types will aid the more efficient employment of their expertise.

This is Crowther's argument to justify his book. And it seems reasonable. As he puts it:

'By seeing where scientists of various types succeeded, and where they failed, it becomes easier to make correct judgments and decisions on how the reservoir of scientific talent can best be utilized, to the benefit of mankind and the felicity of the scientists themselves.'

Many difficulties face anyone attempting a more efficient use of talent. Just as it is easy to assess how successful a person has been after the event, it is difficult to predict how successful a particular person is going to be beforehand. Also, creative persons are, by definition, highly individual people, and are unlikely to respond to direction. Rather than looking at successful scientists and their characteristics, it might be more productive to investigate the types of organisations and conditions which tend to encourage them and lead to useful technological innovation.

Perhaps Crowther has done just this, as an unconscious by-product of his analysis. He has chosen twelve British scientists, and has divided them into four categories: individual investigators; teachers; scientific inventors; and organisers. All were born or died in the nineteenth century. This is a sensible choice for a biographer. All lives are likely to be well documented, and most of their writings extant and available. For the purpose of this book, all have been dead long enough for their contributions to science to be assessed. The interesting thing is this, that ten of the twelve were associated with Cambridge for a significant period of their lives. Five were students at Trinity College.

A first reaction to this might be to suppose that Mr Crowther has been unduly influenced by the contributions of scientists from his own University, and the College at which he won an exhibition; but a glance through a list of successful British scientists of this period will show that, in fact, a very large proportion were students and dons at Cambridge.

What was special about Cambridge during the nineteenth century and early years of the twentieth? Dewar, one of Crowther's dozen, and a Cambridge professor at 33, was quite clear about it: 'The men who escape this mental barrenness are men who were somehow or other taught to think long before they went to university.' Dewar believed that the ancient university system stifled originality, so he quickly moved to London. If he was right, then we have to look at the social advantages which fed the talent to Cambridge. Whether or not Cambridge merely attracted the gifted or actually created them, we have to accept that in most cases talent was fostered.

Was Cambridge the 'think-tank' of 80 years ago? Is a concentration of diverse talents one of the pre-requisities of rapid advance? How significant is it that five of Crowther's dozen were successful mathematicians?

Crowther's sample of twelve scientists is too small for sweeping generalisations, but the questions raised by his selection are worthy of further study.

Michael Underwood

Review of an Adult Book

CHILDREN'S VIEWS OF FOREIGN PEOPLES.
Wallace E. Lambert and Otto Klineberg.
New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Division of Meredith Publishing Co., 440 Park Ave., South. 1967. Pp. 319 $6.50.

This study, sponsored by UNESCO involving children in eleven countries, tried to find answers to such questions as: Where does stereotyped thinking about groups of people — favorable or unfavorable, general or specific — come from? How do they originate? How do they develop? The research tried further to identify the development and significance of ethnic identification, attitudes of friendliness and unfriendliness to other groups, feelings of similarity to and difference from others, the sterotyping process itself and the interrelations among these various phenomenon.

A total of 3,300 children, 6, 10 and 14-year-olds, were interviewed in U.S.A., South Africa, Brazil, English-Canada, French-Canada, France, Germany, Israel, Japan, Lebanon and Turkey.

The interview questions are included and the findings summarized for each national group. To Americans, the greatest interest is, naturally, the responses of children from U.S.A. of universal interest is the cross-national comparisons: Do children think primarly of themselves as belonging to a sex, a religion, a race, a nation or do they consider themselves, first of all, persons? Wide differences were found among the various national groups.

The children's ideas of basic characteristics of their own national group are interesting. The terms mentioned most often in each national group (in order of frequency) were:

American: good, wealthy, free
Bantu: mainly factual statements and similarity references
Brazilian: good, intelligent, cultured, happy, unambitious
English-Canadian: good, wealthy, free, cultured
French-Canadian: good, wealthy, peaceful, patriotic
French: good, intelligent, cultured, happy, bad
German: good, ambitious, wealthy, intelligent
Israeli: good, religious, peaceful, intelligent
Japanese: poor, intelligent, bad
Lebanese: similarity references and good
Turkish: good, peaceful, ambitious, religious, patriotic, clean

When children were asked what nationalities they considered most like and most unlike their own, the greatest number chose **Americans** as most like themselves and **Chinese** and **African Negroes** as most different.

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Lack of space prevents discussion of many different facets by which the data were analyzed: by sex, by age group, by social class, by children's source of information about people (mass media are important) and on the descriptive terms used in the various categories.

The authors' summary of American children is encouraging. 'Compared with the other national samples, the American children show the least amount of ethnocentrism at the 14-year level, a relatively restricted similarity outlook at the 6-and 10-year-levels which broadens by age 14, and an extremely large affective tendency at all age levels, both for those peoples considered similar and those seen as different. from their own group. Although there is the tendency for the younger children to be exclusive about who and how many foreign peoples are conceptualized as similar, the American pattern, compared to the others, is an encouraging one in the sense that these children appear friendly and receptive toward foreign peoples.'

The study concludes with a theoretical interpretation of how children can be reared with healthy views toward their own group and toward other groups. This matter should be of great concern to members of World Education Fellowship. The book is worth study by WEF local chapters.

Marion Edman
Professor of Elementary Education, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan, USA.

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Common Ground in Changing Contexts

Betty Willsher, Teacher, St. Andrews
and **Dr. W. I. Fraser,** Consultant Psychiatrist,
Lynebank Hospital, Dunfermline
describe:

A Pilot In-Service Course in Child Development for Hospital and Community Workers

Introduction:

Hospital and community have become increasingly aware in the past decade of the need to improve communication about the mentally handicapped. Various authorities (O'Hara, 1968; Morris, 1969; Howe, 1969) have recently questioned the fitness of the clinically orientated nurse to care for the subnormal and have stressed the conceptual gap between nurse, teacher and social worker.

The commissioning of a new hospital for the subnormal, at Lynebank in Fife, and the implementation of the Social Work (Scotland) Act in the same year, provided an opportunity for Hospital and Community to start off on a new and common basis, with an experimental in-service course in child development and education for those professional workers in the County, responsible for handicapped children — nurse, hospital teachers and therapists, and community social workers.

We have thought it useful to record our observations on content and difficulties of this venture and some observations for those in each discipline who are 'waiting for See.-bohm.'

Lynebank is situated in a suburb of Dunfermline and provides accommodation for mentally handicapped children and adults and in addition has a large complement of day patients. The residents are housed in single rooms, 3-bed and 6-bed dormitories and either attend the Industrial Therapy Department, which offers varied training opportunities, under five industrial training supervisors; or, in the case of children, the nursery school, occupation centre and E.S.N. school, within the hospital confines but staffed and administered by the education authorities. There are eighty children (resident and day care) at school, a headmistress and four teachers.

As the hospital has moved into operation, social competence courses on Gunzburg's lines, incentive industrial schemes, and operant training for the medium grade patients are being introduced. Group therapy and patient participation are developing and research programmes commencing.

There is a nurse training school, providing a dual course in Psychiatry and Subnormality, in a tower block in the centre of the hospital. with ample lecture theatres, seminar rooms and library.

In addition to physical facilities the hospital is fortunate in having a full professional complement of six psychiatrists, two psychologists and one social worker. We were, therefore, well endowed to embark on a pilot interdisciplinary course.

On November 17th, 1969 the Social Work (Scotland) Act came into operation and the County of Fife, consisting of two large burghs and one county council, appointed three directors of social work and integrated the staff previously employed by Children's Welfare and probation committees and those employed in social work by local health and education authorities. Preparations also commenced for a system of children's panels for dealing with children in need of compulsory measures of care. This part of the act, which will virtually replace court proceedings for juveniles, by a system of evening hearings by selected, child orientated volunteers, will be brought into force towards the end of this year (1970). Prior discussion with the then designate directors of social work confirmed that we shared a need to increase understanding of each others contribution, and that an interdisciplinary course would be a more practical measure than exchanged good manners.

The Department of Further Education for Fife

agreed to finance an external lecturer (B. Willsher) to deliver ten, two-hourly sessions comprising one hour formal lecture and one hour informal discussion led by a psychiatrist (W. Fraser).

Format:
The content of the course covered 12 areas:

1. Early relationships from dependence to independence.
2. Winnicot — the mother and baby; separating out; transitional objects. Rage/depression/grief/guilt. The need to regress. Adult attitudes to regression.
3. Self concepts, Normal defences, and the use of defences in emotionally disturbed children.
4. Maternal deprivation; 'frozen' and 'archipeligo' children.
5. Separation anxiety and the child's attitude to death.
6. Role modelling and sex identification.
7. Body image, self concept and children's art as a key to thought; Marianne Frostig programmes.
8. Certain aspects of emotional growth in pre-school years: guilt, fears and aggression; lies and stealing. An analysis of the temper tantrum in emotionally disturbed children.
9. The meaning of play and its value. Types of play, etc. Implications regarding provision; adult attitudes and adult participation; water, sand and block play.

The lecturer attempted to illustrate each concept and aspect of behaviour by an example from her experience, and introduced more difficult concepts, such as Piaget's theory, in stages so that the audience was ready for it.

10. Intellectual growth:
    The development of language and the growth of concepts (Piaget). Pre-school programmes and cognitive development.
11. Implications for educational therapy from current studies and practice. Specific disfunctions: the child 'psycoses'; epilepsy; and dyslexia.
12. The therapeutic milieu and the interdisciplinary team.

A reading list was provided of source books and essential reading in child psychology. Discussions were recorded to provide participants with a series of notes and continuity in case of non attendance.

At the end of the course a form was given to each participant asking by structured questions for his criticisms of the course.

Observations:
Overall attendances at the lectures remained relatively static, but gradually nurses appeared to find attending the discussion was beyond what service commitments would allow and their numbers were depleted from that part.

Certain patterns in the discussion were clear:

In the initial meetings and when the topic was difficult (e.g. Piaget and Speech Disturbance) discussion tended to be a dialogue between psychiatrist and lecturer, and maximum verbal participation by other personnel occurred on the two occasions when the psychiatrist was absent from the whole or part of the discussion. The authors suspect that people felt more able to ask 'naive' questions when the outside 'neutral' lecturer alone was present.

The themes nurses were most vocal about were: Winnicot and deprivation; fears of how adequately a hospital nursing system could provide a home environment; anxieties about their mothering inadequacies towards 'repulsively' stigmatised children and were most at home with topics such as 'Punishment' and Toilet training. Silence would fall when Play, Perception, Tantrums were being discussed, and the teaching personnel would then take over. Both teaching and nursing disciplines were uneasy when discussing unified policy towards the child and could not see each other readily as a part of a team. A wide discrepancy in perception of role of the hospital and its rules by nurse and teacher was observable.

The concept of 'autism' occupied disproportionate discussion time. Both community

workers and nurses were confused about the syndrome entity as opposed to the adjectival misuse of the term.

The community social workers repeatedly returned to the topic of delinquency and permissiveness in relation to the law and to educational philosophy. Much debate was held on the merits of 'activity' as opposed to 'traditional' schools. Considerable frustration at the psychologically illogical methods and decisions of Juvenile Courts was expressed by the social workers; and veiled optimism as regards the imminent children's panels.

In general the nursing staff felt they had benefited greatly from the course. They often attended on their 'off days'. Their main regret was that service needs often prevented consistent attendance. Enrolled nurses and Nursing Assistants also attended and the latter only occasionally felt the content rather sophisticated (especially Piaget).

The number and distribution of course participants were: 17 nurses, 3 teachers, 6 community workers. It was regretted that no occupation centre staff could contribute by their attendance. Play group supervisors did not participate in the course because a similar parallel course (also promoted by the Education Authorities) was being run for them simultaneously. If there had not been this other provision it was felt that we might have doubled our attendance.

TABLE 1

Number of attendances:

(Lectures)	**1–3**	**4–6**	**7 or more**
Nurses	10	6	1
Teachers	1	0	2
Community	0	0	6
(Discussions)			
Nurses	5	2	0
Teachers	1	2	0
Community	0	1	5

All but two (one teacher, one nurse) stated on the structured questionnaire that the level of the course was correct.

Two found the level of discussion more useful than the lecture, and two less useful.

All except one (a teacher) desired that a subsequent course have more demonstrations, clinical material and practical work, rather than more theory.

The structured questionnaire requested choice of topics for a second complementary course. Most (70% community workers, 50% hospital) opted for a broad course covering adolescent psychiatry, adult psychiatry, clinical syndromes, and social psychology. The community workers showed some preference for social psychology: the nurses, for adolescent psychiatry and clinical syndromes of the handicapped.

The nurses stated that over 50% of their colleagues were wholly prevented from coming: the social workers 20%. Service commitments was invariably the cause.

All participants were asked to fill up a semantic differential (an adjective scaling device) against the concept **Interdisciplinary Course**

Example:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
good		x						bad	e2
feminine						x		masculine	p2
fast		x						slow	a2
dull							x	sharp	a1
kind				x				cruel	e4
weak		x						strong	p6
hot						x		cold	a6
dangerous							x	safe	e1
pleasant	x							unpleasant	e1
productive			x					destructive	p3
excitable			x					calm	a3
valuable			x					worthless	e3

Total: e11, p11. a12.

The results were then broken down into 3 parameters of semantic description of the course: evaluation (good-bad), potency (strong-weak), activity (fast-slow). The nurses showed a very high evaluation of the course

(e10 mean) and considered it more powerful (p9) and faster (a14) than the teachers (e14, p11, a18) who in turn valued it higher, rather weaker but faster than the community workers (e19, p10, a20 means). This conflicts somewhat with the blanket assertion by all but two (overtly) that the course level was 'correct'. A conceivable explanation of the nurses' high estimations on all three parameters is that the nurses were largely starved of child theory information, and were either too grateful or had too few comparisons to be critical even on the semantic device!

An inassessable but perhaps profound value of the course was the mutual appreciation, by hospital and community, that they daily met common problems and though often of diverging outlook basically shared 'commonsense' in such problems' management.

It would be premature to assume that the quality of child care in the hospital significantly rose since the course; but the nurses have been introduced to an approach not founded on clinical descriptions of untreatable syndroms. Rather they have been given a method of treatment. The nurses at least in the short term have shown an increase in behaviour acumen, enthusiasm for play programmes and descriptive vocabulary. They feel somewhat restored to the mainstream of psychiatric thought and confident in their knowledge.

Conclusions:

Not only the nurses' but also the doctor's authentic role in respect of the subnormal child has been questioned (Morris, 1969). There is little doubt that both should primarily be giving psychotherapeutic help rather than practising clinical procedures on the clinically fit. The barriers to altering their role are firstly their service commitments, preventing adequately intensive in-service training, and secondly (less frequently encountered today) an ingrained 'set' against child-centred theory, as exemplified by this nurse's isolated criticism of the course:— 'They (the lectures) were too 'airy fairy'. To attempt to generalise on discipline, whether it be normal, subnormal or any kind of child is to me an utter waste of time. One learns by experience.'

One psychiatrist who attended several of the lectures expressed similar views. His training (like that of many psychiatrists in this field) had been purely adult orientated.

The ultimate answer to the obstacles of outlook is an adequate child orientated syllabus for both nurse and psychiatrist before they take responsibility for the care of subnormals.

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An Edinburgh Schooling in the 'Nineties

Mary Aitken Crawford

Charlotte Square Young Ladies' Institution: that was the name of my school. It sounds very funny now, but at that time it was quite usual for schools to be called 'Institutions'. One of the best boys' schools in Edinburgh was called 'The Institution,' and although I suppose it was properly 'The Institution for the Education of Boys' — or possibly 'Young Gentlemen' — nobody called it anything but 'The Institution' or perhaps 'The 'Stution'. As for the young ladies — that was what we were supposed to be, or to be about to be. The days of High Schools for Girls, though approaching, had not yet arrived, and even the Merchant Company's School in Queen St. had shed its old title of 'The Merchant Maidens' and become a 'Young Ladies' Institution' too. It was always known as 'Queen Street' and our school was 'Charlotte Square.'

The school was the successor of an earlier school which was also in Charlotte Square but at a different number. I have not been able to trace its history or when it came to 23, but I believe it was run by a Mr Thomas Oliphant, who was the father of the two brothers who were the head masters in my time. Many of the mothers of my schoolfellows were educated there. Our school was a funny mixture of the old fashioned and the progressive. Many of the new ideas were due to Mr James, the elder of the two brothers, who was a cultured and widely-read man and a born teacher. Other things he had just accepted as they were bequeathed to him. His brother, Mr John, was a more original character — very stimulating to the young but perhaps less solid in his teaching methods. He was good-looking and attractive, had a B.Sc., and took charge of most of the Science Classes. The thing in which we differed from most other schools of that time was that we had virtually no examinations. Class work was the only criterion on which prizes were given, and the only subject on which we were examined was 'General Knowledge'. At the end of each session there was an examination in this — rather on the lines of the Radio Programme 'Brain of Britain' but even more comprehensive, and perhaps less high in standard, for which special prizes were given.

Another feature of the school was the Committee Girl System. Many schools now have Prefects, but at that time they were not usual in day schools. Each class had a Committee Girl elected by secret ballot and she was responsible for everything regarding class discipline. I think this was the reason why cheating was unknown in our school — which was not the case in many other schools of the period. The Committee girls were also responsible for putting forward any request from the class, such as for a skating holiday or for a class on any special subject. I remember one such request resulting in a series of lectures on architecture, which I enjoyed very much. On this occasion the opinion of the class was divided, and the fact that the committee girl was among those who wanted the subject undoubtedly was one reason why she put it forward.

In the highest class we certainly studied some unusual subjects. One was economics and another year it was Ethics, and we also had what I think would be called Philology — English, French and German grammar compered. Arithmetic was taught on somewhat unusual lines. For the first few weeks of the session the whole senior school met in the largest classroom and did nothing but addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, plain and compound. Allowance was made for quickness. At the end of the period the school was divided into three, irrespective of grades in other subjects, and the highest group went on to more advanced processes and finally to algebra. We had no home sums. Mr Oliphant considered that when possible all work should be done in school, and that some of the subjects usually taught in arithmetic classes were unnecessary . . . He made us learn how to convert pounds, shillings and pence into decimal coinage — and even into duodecimal, which he considered would be a better system. We did not learn tables of weights and measures or those of capacity — much less troy weight. I think he thought the metric system would be introduced before we were grown up. In any case he thought such calculations could be mastered if they were required in future circumstances. The same applied to practice and other arithmetical subjects, but we had to master the ordinary multiplication tables up to fourteen times. I never regretted not knowing some of these things, but was always a little vague about how many pints were in a gallon, which was awkward at times, and though feet and inches soon became quite familiar, I still am not sure how many rods, poles or perches go into a furlong. The origin of these old measures was however explained to us and this was interesting. In fact interest was what was aimed at, which was very good for interested minds, but perhaps less good for the duller pupils. We got a lot of mental arithmetic and were taught dodges for getting quick results, and it still annoys me to see shop assistants jotting down sums on the corner of a message bag when they ought to be able to do them in their heads. Geometry we were

taught in a separate class on one of the systems then beginning to supersede Euclid, but in general the present-day student would think little of our knowledge, for we knew nothing of logarithms or the higher mathematics.

Our English classes were always taken by Mr James and were I think conducted on normal lines. Stress was laid on grammatical correctness and I remember particularly Mr Oliphant's dislike of misrelated participle. In this subject we had some homework to do, for we had to look up the derivations of all the difficult words in the passage we were studying and know their exact meaning. We read some of Shakespeare's plays and the Essays of Elia, and Hazlitt's Essays and some of Scotts novels, and were surprised to learn that some of Scott's grammar was not above criticism. Composition was always done in school and was extemporary. The subjects were various and included writing verse, from which we learned about the various metres. Our essays were returned the following week and the errors were corrected in class but not personally. We then had to copy them, corrected as to grammar, style, and spelling, in our composition books, which were handed in for inspection each week. Writing was not taught in the senior school, we were supposed to form our own style. History and geography were usually taken by Mr John. He had a rooted dislike of dates and thought it was more important to know the causes of events than the exact date of the battles in the Wars of the Roses for instance. Some dates of course were important and we had to know the date of the Conquest and the fact that the Turks captured Constantinople in 1453, and that Waterloo was in 1815, but when the various kings of England succeeded to the throne was immaterial. He also was in the habit of telling us to score out various statements in our geography book if he thought the information was too detailed. He was great on 'approximations'. Thus we were told that Arthur's Seat was approximately half the height of the highest of the Pentlands, and that was half the height of Ben Nevis, and that half the height of the Apeninnes which were half the height of Mont Blanc and that half the height of Mt. Everest. This has stuck in my mind when all ideas of actual height have completely disappeared. But the fact remains that the year we had geography from Mr James I was able to fill in the names of all the States of North America in a blank map and still have a fairly clear idea of where they are, whereas I am still hazy about the various states which made up Germany, though I remember studying this under Mr John. We had an elocution class once a week and learned poems which were likely to appeal to the young from a book called 'Ballads of the Brave'. In this class too we studied the various metres and learned the difference between a ballad and a ballade.

Foreign languages were thought important. Our teachers were partly French and German and partly English speakers with a good knowledge of these languages. As our grammar book in French was called 'Le Francais par le Francais' I presume it was written in that language. It was the work of our French master, M. Melliot, but I do not remember how he taught us. In the other French class we read French books and did a good deal of conversation. Great emphasis was put on accent and idiom. The result was that when we left school we could make ourselves understood in French and German and could read these languages with ease, but as we had not a grasp of the underlying structure our knowledge was rather evanescent, and whether a noun was masculine or feminine or a verb regular or irregular became rather doubtful. I dropped French when I left school but continued studying German for some time, so my recollections of the German teaching are rather vague.

Great emphasis was laid on science, though anything less scientific can hardly be imagined. We had classes in physics and chemistry, but as there was no laboratory, there could be little in the way of experiment, although I remember electricity being demonstrated with the help of an old-fashioned machine, and being shown how a bunsen burner worked. One year we had lectures on the chemistry of food and we also had a geology

class; but our great study was botany. This Mr John took himself and his aim was to give us a thorough knowledge of the flora of our native country. Every year we had to produce a 'herbarium' in which the leaves of twelve trees, or forty wild flowers were pressed, or photographs showing the mode of growth of trees produced. Mr John expected us to know all the common trees by their leaves, buds and flowers, their time of coming into leaf, and in fact everything about them. In summer we were taken for botany excursions to the hills, the seaside or the woods, and we collected specimens of the wildflowers native to those places in vascula. At the end of the afternoon a lecture was given on the plants we had found, and we were expected to identify them as members of the buttercup family, the forget-me-not family and so on. Thus we learned a great deal about them but knew nothing of the Latin names for species or genera. These excursions usually ended in a game of rounders and were much enjoyed.

Our zoology lessons were given by Arthur Thomson, then a lecturer at Edingburgh University and afterwards professor at Aberdeen. We learned all about the life history of the frog and how the digestive system of the cow differed from that of the carnivorous animals, and that the wing of the bat, hoof of the horse and the hand of man were all adaptations of the same structure, and his class was illustrated by specimens in bottles and sometimes by live animals, such as a slow-worm and even a baby crocodile — which bit the lecturer to our great delight. Mr Thomson was a very shy man and never got to know any of us personally, and his class was not always very orderly, but I do not think we can have behaved too badly for I believe he dedicated one of his books to 'the girls of Chorlotte Square'. Physiology was taught by Dr Andrew Wilson (the Combe Lecturer), a very different person. He was very strict and made us keep notebooks for which he gave a special prize. Hygiene and public health were also taught by him and if we did not know about the evils of tight-lacing it was not for want of telling — but sex was never mentioned. For all that we were told, there was no difference between the physiology of men and women.

I do not think that Mr Oliphant can have been interested in art. Our drawing was limited to drawing from the cast, and our drawing teacher was, surprisingly, not a man. We did no watercolour work and no original work of any kind. Our sewing class was equally uninspiring. I have no recollection of doing any 'fancy work' or embroidery — just long seams of backstitch or hemming and no instruction on cutting out. Nor do I remember any pictures hanging on the walls except two of Dürer's woodcuts — St. Jerome and the Melancolia — which were never explained to us — nor were we given copies of great pictures to look at. Music was well taught by Miss Lichtenstein and some of the well known musicians of the time in Edinburgh. After Miss Lichtenstein left Ernst Denhof joined the staff and Mrs Kennedy Fraser took charge of the singing. We had lessons on theory of music and learned what a figured bass was.

Gymnastics were well taught. There was a large and well equipped Gymnasium where Sergeant Barker put us through our paces not only in drill and physical exercises but in the use of parallel bars and the climbing rope, and other appliances. We had no organised games in my time, though later a hocky team was started, but there was an arrangement by which we were allowed to play tennis in the dean Courts and I see from the prize-list of 1895 that prizes were given for tennis and golf. There was no play-ground attached to the school except a small area at the back, constructed on the top of the lunchroom, and two swings on an adjoining plot of ground which had once been part of the garden. These were in constant use in the intervals between classes and we also had the free run of the gym at such times and enjoyed swinging on the 'rings' which were permanent fixtures of the building. Our school hours were short, as many of the classes were optional. Dancing was one, but it was not ballroom dancing, which funnily enough was not taught at all. I should have thought it an essential part of the education of young ladies. Another feature of the school was the

presence of governesses who did not teach at all but were present at all classes and took charge of marks. I think they were intended to act as chaperons since so many of our teachers were men, but as they were mostly very young they would have been in more need of chaperonage themselves. They were in charge during the intervals between classes. As our school day was short we had no school dinners but took lunch with us in sandwich tins, and there was a long break between 12 and 12.30 when we also could buy scones and buns which were brought in from a neighbouring baker's.

Another feature of the school was the performance of plays at Christmas. These were given as part of the Christmas festivities of a girls' club which Mrs Oliphant ran in the school premises in the evenings. They were fairy-tale plays — Aladdin, The Sleeping Beauty, Beauty and the Beast, and not only were they of value to those who excelled in elocution, but they gave great scope for the construction of scenery and props, and experience in play production. Many a hilarious hour was spent splashing about paint and doing amateur carpentry up in the attics under Mr John's supervision. Indeed the most striking thing about Charlotte Square was that we enjoyed our schooldays. Those who left to go to other schools found them 'dull' and 'uninteresting' and most of the former pupils had a soft spot for their old school, even those who regretted not being fitted to go on to university.

The great defect of the education there was the lack of learning how to study. There is no doubt that one memorises best when young as we all know apropos of the multiplication table, and many of the things we were taught should have been rammed in by repetition. When I was about 15 I met a former pupil (a former head of school) who was then a medical student. 'If you want to go to university,' she said, 'leave Charlotte Square at once. It took me a year to learn how to learn'. Yet in spite of many inadequacies there must have been something of value in the teaching given there. Many of the former pupils took a leading place in Edinburgh Social work, and several of the first women members of the town council were old Charlotte Squarites.

The Molecule Club

Science or Entertainment or Both?

Bernard Miles and his colleagues at the Mermaid Theatre have come up with the exhilerating idea of presenting 'a scientific entertainment' to children, using the techniques of the Theatre to present science in a new form.

I attended the show 'Lights Up' both as a scientist and as a teacher, part of whose job is to teach student teachers how to develop science in schools with children from 3 to 13 years.

The entertainment was very capably presented with a lively young cast and the results were most enjoyable. Nevertheless, I must admit to being disappointed. In spite of the worthwhile aim of showing children science and its application in everyday life, and of encouraging them to experiment, I have doubts that this aim was carried out.

The 'experiments' displayed used large and unusual equipment — this was necessary because of the demands of display in a theatre. Although nearly everyone of the 'experiments' could be repeated with very simple apparatus by the child himself, this was never emphasised. This left an impression in my mind at least that 'experiments' are unusual occurences requiring unusual means to bring them about — an attitude which I often typify to my students as a belief in calorimeters rather than kettles or hot water bottles for work with heat.

A second point of criticism anis — again from the demands of a theatrical performance. None of the scientific happenings are seen in a normal everyday setting but rather as something odd. They are not seen as something which if understood better would make their

ordinary world more comprehensible. Yet early science with young children should be starting from the world around them — their environment to use a jargon term — and encouraging them to look twice at something and ask 'why?'' about it.

'Why does the me in the mirror wave its left hand when I wave my right?'

'Why do the red buses and the green buses look the same colour at night?'

'Why can we see out through the net curtains but people outside can't see in?' etc.

Science's job is to help us to understand the world we live in; but unfortunately, in the last 100 years or more, that world has tended to be one of atoms and electric forces and gravitational attractions — a world that most of us cannot recognise as 'the world we live in'. Thus the advances of scence have led to a dichotomy between the physical world of the 'man-in-the-street' and that of the science specialist. But both worlds are real, they are both **there** and the world as the child sees it is, of course, the world from which all science begins. So that, in spite of the impression to the contrary science has got something to say which we can all appreciate.

I felt as if the Molecule Club, the group behind the entertainments at the Mermaid Theatre, have got half the story. They show science as something lively, exciting and fun to do. But they are still labouring under a distorted view of science as so many gimmicks which can be displayed in isolation with little relation to each other or to the normal environment of the child.

But I must finish by saying that personally I found the whole performance so imaginative that in spite of my criticism I would like to see more teachers seeing this kind of thing and carrying some of that tremendous vitality and enjoyment back with them to their classrooms.

We printed two other impressions of the Molecule experiment in January 1970 issue and we are glad to add Mrs Lewis's comment now.

Child Welfare and the School

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Introduction

This article is intended to be a consideration of the issues raised by the operation of child welfare services within the school and their relationships with external agencies. Concepts of pastoral care, remedial, curative and compensatory education will be examined as well as the more specific role of the counsellor in secondary and primary education.

There is a growing concern that schools should involve themselves more actively in the welfare of children. Clegg and Megson make a powerful case for such involvement in their recent book 'Children in Distress', while the Plowden Report says, 'The training of teachers, including in-service training should take more account of the social factors that affect school performance and of the structure and functions of the social services. Such training is particularly necessary for head teachers and deputies.' (Central Advisory Council for Education, 1967). The more recent Seebohm Report on 'Local Authority and Allied Personal Social Services' is even more explicit: 'We endorse the recommendations of the Plowden Council that teacher training should always include a study of the social factors which affect the behaviour and progress of children at school and that in-service training courses should be provided for established teachers who wish to develop this knowledge. In some schools there should be established, on an experimental basis, posts of special responsibility for liaison with outside agencies. Such posts might be combined with counselling or with remedial teaching.' (Committee on Local Authority and Allied Personal Social Services, 1968).

The Summerfield Report on psychologists in educational services emphasises both the need for psychological services and the continuing shortage of trained psychologists. It endorses the need for counsellors in schools and urges the establishment of a body of

teachers who have studied the psychology of education beyond the level attempted in their initial teacher training.

It is not only official reports that state the need for a teaching force which is more alert to the problems of children. 'Pastoral Care' has become a nation-wide concern and a critical look is being taken at all present arrangements to help children in school. These arrangements include the activities of form and house masters, tutors and year masters, careers officers and career masters, school social workers and school counsellors, educational psychologists and school medical officers, child care officers and educational welfare officers. They also include different methods of organisation within the school, both vertical and horizontal in form, the maintenance of comprehensive record systems and methods of co-operating with parents and with external agencies.

This current interest in a long recognised function of education seems to have grown from a number of sources. One is the increase in child study and the feeling that the individual pupil needs to be understood by the teacher. Individual child studies are an essential part of teacher-training courses and in-service courses in child study are popular. The more that the individual differences within a group of children are taken into account the more the need to help those with problems is felt. As teachers become more aware of their pupils as individuals and learn to identify their social and personal problems so they become more anxious to set up appropriate mechanisms to cope with these problems. Traditionally this has been the domain of the form master or mistress, the head or deputy head, and, in the pupil's final year, the careers master. Increasingly the efforts of these teachers have been found to be less than adequate. Teachers do not feel that their training has given them the skill to recognise problem behaviour, to identify the predisposing factors, to provide adequate remedial or therapeutic help or to cooperate with the increasingly complex social agencies. Schools become larger all the time and, as they do, headmasters find that they cannot hope to maintain the personal contact upon which their present pupil welfare activities depend. Schools become increasingly complex. They 'go comprehensive' and increase the range of pupil ability, go 'co-educational' and add other-sex and inter-sex problems to their single-sex ones. They amalgamate and increase the range of social problems with which they have to cope, raise the school leaving age and increase career problems. For all these reasons pupil welfare is an important contemporary issue in education.

Defining the Needs

It is a truism that all children have problems. If we put this another way, we can affirm that there are no school children who could not gain more from the educational process. Education is seen now as the setting up of the optimum learning environment for each individual pupil. The achievement of this presupposes that difficulties, which individuals encounter at different periods in their educational life, should be identified so that help can be given. These difficulties may be peculiar to the individual or they may be characteristic of developing children. They may be the result of congenital handicap or of social disadvantage. They may be enduring personality characteristics, leading to chronic unsettledness or acute maladjustment resulting from violent upheaval. Most often they will be compounded from a multiplicity of predisposing factors.

This means that the teacher must be able to help the minority of children who have acute problems at any one time and the majority of children who need help at some time. He needs to have a developmental approach to the guidance of children, knowing how to help children with the normal problems of growing up and knowing how to call for help for those children whose problems are abnormal in kind or intensity. The key word is guidance and the areas in which guidance is needed have been summarised as personal, scholastic and vocational (Schools Council 1967).

Personal guidance is concerned with helping

children with the emotional and social aspects of their development. Behaviour problems, emotional disturbance, family stress, peer group difficulties are some of the general terms we use to describe the more extreme forms of developmental dissonance. The teacher is concerned with these problems as well as the less extreme day by day difficulties of the growing child. The teacher is concerned because these problems interfere with the child's learning, interfere that is with his optimal utilisation of the educational environment. The teacher is concerned also because he knows that the child needs to be able to turn to sympathetic and knowledgeable adults and because concern for the happiness of those one associates with is one of the marks of civilisation. The teacher needs to be able to observe in a systematic manner and to make hypotheses about the behaviour he observes. He should know when to call in the specialist, school doctor or school psychologist, for example, and when and how to adapt the classroom situation in such a way as to reduce the seriousness of the problems he has observed. For the majority of children, the teacher is the professional person with whom there is most contact. The teacher is inevitably playing a diagnostic and therapeutic as well as a scholastic role.

Scholastic guidance is not separate from this. Children's emotional problems bring about learning problems while failure in school subjects is a primary cause of emotional disturbance. The tendency has been to concentrate help for children with learning problems on those with the most extreme difficulties. Remedial classes are set up, remedial teachers are employed. It is clear, however, that the children who are helped in these classes form the extreme of a continuum. All children have learning problems at sometime or other, many children need help with these problems and the help should come when the problem first manifests itself and not when it has become habitualised. It is necessary, therefore, for teachers to know why failure in learning occurs, to be able to diagnose its causes and to implement remedial work in their own subjects.

Vocational guidance is generally seen to be more than careers advice, more than an attempt to match talent and job. A developmental approach is necessary so that children are helped to make the right decision at the right time. Then the final career choice is a realistic one, in terms of their own ability and personality and the needs of society. This means that vocational guidance cannot be separated from personal and scholastic guidance. The selection of school courses, for instance, a task which becomes increasingly complex as the number of options proliferate has personal, scholastic and vocational implications.

Child Welfare Services.
At present there are a great number of persons and agencies involved in the guidance of children. Personal guidance involves teachers in many roles, the class teacher, the form master, the house master, the year master, the deputy head, the senior mistress. Increasingly there is the organisation of tutorial systems in which the teacher's involvement in personal guidance is made more explicit. The head teacher sees himself very much as responsible for personal guidance and time for pupil and parent interviews and case conferences has to compete with administrative and teaching requirements. From outside the school the educational psychologist acts in a consultant capacity and makes necessary liaison with child guidance. The educational welfare officer becomes particularly involved in social problems and his work is entangled with that of child guidance in, for instance, cases of school refusal. Many children in school are the responsibility of the Children's Department and the solution of their learning problems demands continual co-operation between school and social agency. Then there are those children who are in the care of the probation officers, an interlocking chain of responsibility to deal with overlapping areas of need. The complicated structure of child welfare has led to a call for an integrated social service and a recommendation from the Seebohm Committee to base all personal social services on the family as a unit and to concentrate these services in one department — a move with obvious administrative

advantages but with possibly some disadvantages in other directions.

The school, however, is in a crucial situation as a child welfare service. Much diagnostic work must originate in the school, much therapeutic work must concentrate itself there and the services which the school organises must fit closely into the welfare services offered by outside agencies. There would seem to be a need for a structuring of intra-school relationships in a positive way, beginning with the teacher, aware of his role and equipped with the basic understanding and technique to fulfil it, fitting into an organisation where more senior teachers hold specific welfare responsibility and training and where specialist teachers, counsellor, careers teacher and remedial teacher, can function effectively in a total caring environment since their roles in this environment are clearly defined.

Present School Welfare Arrangements

In many schools the concept of pastoral care has been given much consideration and has been institutionalised in various ways, some more successful than others. The majority of secondary schools rely upon traditional structures, modelled upon public schools and not specifically adapted to cater for the different needs of children in non-residential, co-educational institutions. Most schools rely upon form teachers for basic personal guidance. A form period of about ten minutes each morning for registration and general school business is supplemented sometimes by a full-length form period once per week. The form teachers usually take other subject periods with their forms, particularly in the first year, to help them to learn to know individual pupils. The form teacher faces considerable difficulties in providing personal guidance even where he sees the role as one that applies to him, and many do not see it that way. There is no private room, for instance in which he can interview, very little time in which he can meet individual pupils. The Head, Deputy Head and Senior Mistress are also involved in personal guidance and, having access to private rooms, are more often employed in individual counselling. But even when these persons feel that pupil welfare is their most important job it has to compete with administrative, teaching and other responsibilities and often ends up a bad third.

Some schools have experimented with other methods of organising pastoral care. One attempt to overcome some of the difficulties inherent in the form teacher system is the family tutor system. On entry, children are appointed to a tutor who is responsible for their welfare throughout their whole school life; that is, a form of vertical grouping is adopted. Numbers in tutorial groups are kept small by the inclusion of all specialist staff and brothers and sisters join the same group so that the tutor has time to learn the background of each member of his group. The tutor is responsible for record-keeping, interviews parents and has regular opportunities to meet his group to discuss individual or mutual problems. He shares the same disadvantages as the form teacher in having no adequate room for private interviews. On the other hand, the prime responsibility of the tutor is personal guidance, this is made explicit and is recognised as such by the children. Regular case conferences ensure that the tutor is not left to tackle his problems unsupported and this has resulted, from my own observation of one school which initiated this system, in the development of a 'caring' attitude towards children throughout the whole staff.

Other schools have divided the school horizontally into Junior, Middle and Upper Schools. Each of these has a head and assistants whose main function is pastoral care. The 'Year' is the welfare unit in other schools and Year Masters and Mistresses are appointed. The traditional House, a vertical structure, has been transformed in other schools from an organisation for intra-school competition to an instrument of pastoral care. There is no one organisation, no right way. What is needed in the first place is for teachers to accept for themselves the role of child welfare worker and, having accepted it, to accept the implications of this role.

In one school in which a tutor system has been adopted the scheme has 'highlighted a num-

ber of problems — the importance of contact between the tutor and the school doctor and comparable officers, the ignorance in the school of welfare agencies that exist outside the school and the necessity for contact with them'. (Wiseman, 1969. p.23.) Liaison with outside agencies is variable and depends on individual contacts. An attempt in one county to make head teachers better informed by circulating a directory of welfare services was frustrated by the Chief Education Officer who did 'not feel that head teachers would be interested.' Yet there is much confusion about the interlocking chain of responsibility described previously and many headmasters have expressed a need for clearer lines of communication. These are being developed in many ways: conferences for teachers and social workers, courses given by child care officers, probation officers, youth employment officers, etc., to describe their own work to teachers, joint case conferences to discuss problem children, visits by teachers to welfare agencies, children's homes and so on. What needs to go is the concept of a school as a closed unit handling its own problems, discouraging outside interference.

This applies also to home-school relationships. The effective way in which parents are discouraged from entering many schools has been made clear by recent studies (e.g. McGeeney, 1969). Other schools, feeling that liaison with parents is important, are appalled by the difficulty of meeting the parents of those children who most need help. In an attempt to overcome this the post of teacher-social worker has been suggested. Experiments in planned home school relations are going on and teacher-social workers and school social workers are being trained. In most schools parents are invited to meet the staff at certain points in their child's career. These are generally arranged at times of decision in the child's school life. Other occasions when parents and teachers meet are at crisis points, when the child's behaviour has forced a confrontation, and at the occasional ritual of the Parent-Teacher Association. None of these add up to effective school co-operation. That parents can be encouraged to take a greater interest in their child's schooling and that this interest and involvement pays off in educational results has been demonstrated by recent studies. (e.g. Young and McGeeney, 1968, McGeeney 1969). What is needed is the conviction by teachers of the value of a close parent-school relationship and the alleviation of fears that parents, if given the chance, will interfere with the running of schools. Teacher-social workers can make a distinct contribution to effective co-operation particularly in schools with considerable social problems. All schools could benefit from closer links with parents and where an efficient system of pastoral-care exists these links can most easily be forged.

Remedial and Compensatory Education

By the very nature of individual differences, many children are likely to experience problems in learning. Learning tasks arise at critical stages in the child's life and on their solution depends his harmonious development. Reading is one of these tasks. Children are faced with the task of learning to read during their first two years of school and since many of them are not ready, emotionally, socially or intellectually for the task, failure is inevitable. Problems in reading persist throughout the schooling period and remedial services are necessary. Such services are less than effective if they are construed as didactic in character. Reading problems have to be seen in the wider context of emotional and social problems and any remedial process must concern itself with child welfare. Good remedial teachers have always been aware of this. Attempts to combine counselling with remedial teaching illustrates one approach to the problem. Many remedial teachers are attached to Child Guidance Clinics or the School Psychological Service, while Oxfordshire has recently begun an ambitious scheme to combine remedial, social and psychological services to provide for the care of vulnerable children. Another way to manage this is to expand the concept of remedial education until it covers all attempts at remedying the problems of children. Training in remedial education would therefore stress methods of child study, learning psychology and remedial techniques. In the Secondary school remedial education would

be concerned with the learning problems of all children, not just the bottom 10-20 per cent and would look at all the factors which hinder successful learning. In the Primary school remedial education would take over the whole concept of child welfare since at this age most problems affect learning or are presented in learning terms.

The remedial teacher in the primary school should, therefore, fulfil a very similar role to that of the school counsellor in the secondary school, while in the secondary school he will complement the work of the school counsellor. Training in remedial education will also provide personnel for 'compensatory' education. Some schools are situated in environments which are so detrimental to child welfare that a large proportion of the children at the school need help. Programmes to help such children need to take into account their social and emotional needs and the imaginative treatment of the school environment to overcome the disadvantages of their home environment. Highly publicized attempts at compensatory education in the United States seem to have met with inconclusive results and it would certainly appear that merely enriching the school environment is insufficient to compensate for the worst kinds of environmental disadvantage. As part of a total programme of child welfare, however, and to cope with more easily identifiable groups such as immigrant children, compensatory education is essential, and must be increased if we are to arrive at a just society.

School Counselling

A concept central to child welfare is that of school counselling. As schools have become more complex, their staff more conscious of the needs of children, their pastoral care arrangements more sophisticated, the need for a specialist, trained in child welfare, on the school premises has emerged. It is difficult to estimate the number of counsellors working in schools in Britain at present. Certainly some 160 trained counsellors have passed through Diploma Courses in Counselling since they began five years ago. A large proportion of these have since been employed as counsellors, some of them full-time, some of them part-time. Many more have been appointed with professional training in social case work or marriage guidance. In spite of different backgrounds and different conditions of appointment, a marked similarity seems to be discernible in the kind of work school counsellors find themselves doing. A counsellor role seems to be emerging and this is a British counselling role and not an American one grafted on to a British school system. Let us examine this role, the kind of functions which stem from it and the way in which it integrates with other child welfare services.

The Schools Council Working Paper on Counselling in Schools defined the work of a counsellor as that of guidance and, as already described, guidance is divided into its educational, personal and vocational aspects. Most counsellors are involved in the three aspects of guidance although each individual counsellor places his emphasis differently. The most widely felt need is for personal guidance and with this almost every counsellor is involved. Children are referred to the counsellor by staff members, sometimes by form and class teachers, at other times only by senior staff or headmaster. Most counsellors also see children who refer themselves and this category of referral seems to increase as the counsellor becomes established. Girls seem to refer themselves rather more easily than boys and this happens equally with male and female counsellors. The one-to-one interview situation is the most common and the approach favoured by the counsellor is the non-directive or client-centred one associated with the name of Carl Rogers. There is a considerable use of group situations, however, and as counsellors gain confidence in themselves and their craft, there emerges an increasing flexibility in their methods within the one-to-one situation, and the non-directive approach is seen as not necessarily the most appropriate for all occasions. Counsellors develop contacts with parents both in the general way of meeting them formally and informally on as many occasions as possible and also in the specific way of seeking their co-operation in the solution of their children's problems.

Home visits are an important part of many counsellors' sphere of duty although most feel that it is a more economical use of time if parents can be encouraged to come to the school. Liaison with outside agencies is an almost universal characteristic of the counsellor's work and an impressive amount of progress has been made by many in setting up inter-agency committees, arranging for joint case-conferences and developing informal links within the community. It is in these ways that the concept of the counsellor as a link man between the school and the social services is beginning to be realised. The co-operation with Child Guidance has been a particularly effective one and the fears expressed by many Child Guidance workers at the idea of a 'mini-psychologist' in the school do not seem to have been realised in practice. There is no doubt about it that even if we had many more educational psychologists working in the schools than is likely in the forseeable future the kind of early diagnostic work and intensive follow-up that we should like to have in every school would not be possible. Only someone who belongs to the school staff and is on the premises can provide this.

Besides the urgent needs of personal guidance, the claims of educational guidance look pale. There is, however, no clear dividing line between the two and even where a counsellor feels his priorities are with personal problems or the development of healthy personalities he will inevitably find himself involved in helping with educational decisions. Besides this incidental educational guidance the counsellor is involved with two main sets of tasks. In the first instance he is helping to bring some systems into the increasingly complex area of choosing courses. As the representative of the individual child he is able to make sure that choices are made in the light of pupil rather than administrative needs. Sometimes the counsellor carries out this task by routine interviews with all pupils who are at a decision-making stage. At other times the counsellor restricts his assistance to those who perceive themselves as needing help. Group counselling sessions are frequently used to define the issues involved and to help pupils to a clearer perception of their own mental processes. The second set of tasks the counsellor tackles in this area is the solution of specific learning problems. Here co-operation with subject teachers and remedial staff is essential. Group counselling is used to alleviate anxiety in learning situations, for example mathematics, or to develop favourable attitudes towards study or efficient study methods. In this sphere the counsellor can develop as a learning consultant to the school. This is a role which is emerging more slowly than others mentioned.

In vocational guidance the counsellor has often to demonstrate that he has a part to play alongside an existing careers advice structure. In situations like these he becomes a member of a team consisting of careers teachers and careers officers and contributing expert knowledge of individual pupils particularly those with problems. Where no adequate careers department exists the counsellors have often had to build one up although there is ample evidence that, if this type of guidance is to work as it should it will occupy most of the counsellor's time.

As part of his work in all areas of guidance the counsellor has need for an adequate system of cumulative records. This equips him to function adequately as the consultant within the school on the needs of individual children. His personal knowledge of children, backed up by his records, enable him to provide probation officers, child care officers, child guidance workers, youth employment officers with the kind of information they need to carry out their work. The school staff, too, is able to base its decisions on careful study of the needs of the individual child rather than the intuitive impressions, hasty opinions or sheer lack of knowledge upon which these decisions have been so often based in the past. In addition to his cumulative record system upon which the counsellor can draw to help professional workers in general the counsellor also keeps his own case notes which enable him to preserve continuity in his relationship with his client and also equip him to evaluate his own work.

Counsellors administer tests of attainment and aptitude and, where appropriate, tests of personality and social adjustment to help make adequate conceptualization of individuals and groups. This information is recorded along with other observations and factual material.

A great deal of most counsellor's time is taken up with consultation with staff colleagues. This is a two-way process and an invaluable aspect of the counsellor's presence in the school. The counsellor needs to consult his colleagues about their observations of the children they teach. In the interview room only one aspect of the child is presented and the counsellor who restricts himself to this aspect is neglecting the wholeness of his client. The observations of teachers need to be checked against his own observations, his test results, his interviews with parents, his consultations with other social agencies to produce and test his hypothesis about the needs of the child. In the reverse process he will be consulted by colleagues about individual children and groups of children. How can these children be helped best? What learning experiences are most appropriate? What explanation can be offered for behaviour which has been observed? From this dialogue emerges a healthy and stimulating educational environment.

The success of the counsellor in all these varied roles depends to a large extent upon the atmosphere of the school in which he is working. Although the presence of a counsellor can go a long way towards bringing about a healthy school climate his efficiency is largely a function of the climate existing when he goes into a school. Where the need for a counsellor has emerged from an existing concern for child welfare, where each teacher is already performing his pastoral care role, the counsellor can begin to operate immediately in the way I have described. Where he needs to convince the staff, not only that he has a legitimate educational role to play, but also that child welfare is a basic concern of teachers, he has an uphill task. An exceptional personality is needed to do this adequately. It is fortunate that so many trained counsellors have such personalities.

Towards an integrated school welfare service

There are many reasons why we need to improve child welfare in this country and many ways in which this improvement could take place. But while there is need for change in child care, probation service, youth service, youth employment, child guidance and other community services directed at young people, the greatest need is in the school. The home is the single most important influence upon the child's development, the school is the second most important. The home is relatively inaccessible, uncontrollable, the school is an accessible, controllable environment. Children spend a long time in school and this time can contribute positively towards healthy development. This is to say that child welfare should be aimed at assisting all children with the normal problems of growth rather than being aimed specifically at the small proportion with extreme difficulties. In a welfare service of this kind based on prevention rather than cure the school must play a crucial role.

Great hopes are laid upon the school as an agent of social change. We expect the school for instance to succeed in transforming our society when all our efforts in legislation and welfare appear to have ground to a halt. We can look at the success of the English Public Schools in training a governing class and the success of the American Public School in producing a sense of common identity and can pin our hopes upon the Comprehensive School to bring about a just society in which the merit of the minority can be recognized without penalizing the majority. Yet, at a time like this when social change is so rapid and when the values at which we aim are perceived with such difficulty, it seems more likely that the school will reproduce the general social confusion rather than produce a solution to it. Both the English and the American Public Schools worked within clear value systems; we can point to no such certainty. Yet among the uncertainties and ethical confusion of the mid-twentieth century one value seems to emerge clearly and that is concern for the welfare of all citizens.

We are involved in a continual debate which has as its theme 'Love Thy Neighbour'. It is this value which needs to transform our schools so that they become institutions which care. If the staff can demonstrate to the pupils a strong, informed and unsentimental concern for each of them, as individuals, an attitude will develop which will permeate the school and help the pupils to see meaning not only in education but also in life.

I shall conclude by considering what is required practically to produce a school welfare service of this kind. In the first place an efficient system of pastoral care built upon a genuine concern for children is a basic requirement. Then a counsellor is needed to co-ordinate the efforts of tutor, parent and external agency, to initiate and facilitate arrangements for improving the quality of care and to ensure that the needs of no child are overlooked. Trained careers staff in the school will need to form a team with careers officers and the counsellor to co-ordinate vocational guidance. Large scale programmes to help schools with particular problems, big groups of disadvantaged children, high proportions of immigrants or delinquents, low standards of achievement, can be launched by L.E.A's with the co-operation of various specialist agencies. There is no reason why Universities and Colleges of Education could not play an important part in such programmes as in the United States. In primary schools, guidance and remedial services could be provided on a team basis incorporating diagnostic and remedial units. With welfare services of this kind in all our schools continuity of concern would extend from pre-school to higher education.

To summarize the needs in child welfare:

1) a well-organised system of pastoral care in each school, with strong parental links.
2) a trained counsellor in each secondary school, full-time in bigger schools, part-time in smaller.
3) a trained careers staff to co-ordinate with school counsellor and careers officers.
4) guidance and remedial services provided on a team basis for primary schools.
5) special programmes of compensatory education for schools with special problems.
6) close liaison between welfare agencies with the school counsellor playing a crucial role.
7) an expanded concept of remedial education to help solve all kinds of learning problems.

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The Use of the Media in Living and Learning Situations

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Two classroom visits which I made last week stand out. One was a workshop situation in creative art, set up by a first year teacher of grade 4. At the door this teacher greeted me warmly. Her attitude seemed to be 'Come in and I'll show you how it's done'. I was happy that she didn't interrupt her class to introduce me. I found happy boys and girls and

all so creatively occupied. Like roses in a garden they seemed to be unfolding in the warmth and richness of their classroom environment. I came away thrilled over what I had experienced.

The second class was the traditional kind, and indeed excellent in terms of the past. But today is not yesterday! This junior high school class in Language Arts was taught by a very capable teacher, but only about twenty percent of her class responded, perhaps four or five pupils at the most. The others could not have cared less about the poem that was read and dissected. You could tell this by the expressions on their faces. The teacher just didn't get through to them, and of this she was well aware. The experience brought back my own school days when my teacher assumed that I saw things as she did, when I swallowed her evalution 'hook, line, and sinker.' It was her interpretation of the poem that I ended up with — not mine. This I gave back to her at exam time, which got me 'through'. My 'appreciation' ended there.

Last month, with three of our N. S. educators — Mr George Forsythe, Cornwallis District High School, Mr Robert Potts, Clark Rutherford, C.F.B. Cornwallis, and Mr Jack Ritcey, Digby Regional High School, I spent a week visiting classrooms in Ontario — St. Catherines, North York, Metro Toronto, and Etobicoke. Never could educators have a more exciting adventure! The purpose of this tour was to see screen education in action — how the program operates in the classroom, what it does for children, how it makes education relevant to the needs of boys and girls in today's society, and how it revolutionizes education. We were not disappointed! We returned to Nova Scotia enthusiastic and with new vision.

Without exception in every learning situation observed there was total involvement of all pupils, including the so-called negative boys and girls, those who do not respond to our print oriented traditional approach. Why? Simply because in these classrooms the language of picture and sound was used — the 'outside the classroom' language with which media magicians bombard today's youth.

Our visit to the Glenview Senior School, Toronto, a Junior High School class in Language Arts was memorable. We entered the classroom at 9.15. The room was in semidarkness, lighted only by the sunlight which crept in around the window shades and by a few Christmas candles placed on tables about the room. This was the setting for the learning experience of the period. A student was in control of the electronic media, and through loud speakers located about the classroom ecstatic music poured forth. We found ourselves listening to the recording, 'The Sea', from the album 'The Sea, The Earth, The Sky' and hearing the smashing of breakers as they so often pound our rugged coastlines. The magic of the accompanying voice captivated us. All combined to bring back memories — bits of past experiences captured unconsciously from our environment and tucked away in the recesses of the memory 'It all came back'! As they listened, pupils in their own spontaneous groupings, danced creatively — a slow and artistic movement of their lovely arms and bodies. A student now flicked the switch of a projector and on the screen we beheld the beauty and vastness of our country. The film 'The Enduring Wilderness', is truly a great work of art and comparable to and even surpassing in beauty and emotional appeal, many a poem, essay, and short story which once I tried 'to teach' my classes. The panoramic beauty of our country unfolded — rugged coastlines and mountains, picturesque lakes, mighty rivers, fast flowing streams, green hills and valleys, and verdant forests. We saw Canada's wild life and heard the music of nature known only to the enduring wilderness. This multi-sensory approach to living and learning concluded with the recording 'This is my Land' with its deep emotional impact. Combined this was a moving experience. Every emotion was awakened. There was communication with the whole human being.

The classroom was now silent. The teacher, a director of learning remained in the background. It was she who in her wisdom and

understanding had created this responsive environment. No, she didn't say to her pupils, 'Now boys and girls, wasn't that beautiful!' 'Aren't you proud to be a Canadian!' But within seconds hands went up all over the classroom. The teacher's job now was to control the discussion. Every child in the classroom had something to say — what he liked, what appealed to him, how he reacted inside, how the producer of the program created the effect he desired, etc. The discussion revealed the children's knowledge of film production techniques, the skilful work of the photographer, and the role of the many artists involved in the production. Never had we heard children talk so spontaneously, so seriously, and so intelligently. Precise observations made by some pupils were enlarged by others. Questions asked were answered. Reference made to current social problems such as the pollution of our rivers and streams, and the preservation of wild life, sparked a planned program of research. 'And what if the children hadn't responded?', I asked the teacher. 'We would have gone on to something else', she replied. 'No response', she continued 'would have meant no communication'. Displays of art, poetry, essays, literally filled the walls of this classroom — the children's ideas, their thoughts, the results of the stimulation and inspiration of their responsive environment. In a totally print oriented classroom, all that we try to do and so often fail to accomplish, was achieved here so easily and so effectively through the use of the multi-sensory approach to writing, reading, and discussion. The children were happy children. They were happy because they enjoyed what they were doing. Their experience was an emotional one and so creative. This is screen education in action.

The week prior to our visit to the Laura Secord Secondary School, St. Catherines, a grade 11 screen education class had been requested, as an assignment, to take 'shots' in and about the school, each not more than sixty seconds in length, and each to depict either a feeling of warmth or of coldness. The individual films had been processed and made into one film approximately twenty minutes in length. We had the happy experience of sitting in with the class as they viewed the results of their efforts for the first time. Exciting this all was! The film was rewound and shown a second time, with the teacher stopping the projector at the end of each shot for interpretation by the class. Following the evaluation of her 'shot', a grade 11 girl who sat at my table, burst out with exuberance, 'That's exactly the feeling I tried to capture! Imagine how she felt! she had experienced success. She had learned by doing.

In one school we visited, we heard the announcement over the PA system — 'Grade 11, tomorrow is camera day. Be sure to bring your cameras'. In the Don Mills School, North York, we were told that fifty percent of the staff are involved in screen education in one or another of its aspects. At Glenview Senior we observed with interest a film production crew in action. Here the students were using the long hallways of the school for the shooting of a number of scenes for the film they were making. We noted in particular the roles of the production manager and his assistants, the director of photography, the director of lighting, the director of sound, the script writers, the editing staff, and the actors themselves. In answer to an inquiry, the teacher replied, 'No, if I see the pupils making a mistake, I do not correct it. This will show up when they see the results of their work. They will find the error themselves and make the correction'. Is this not education at its best! She elaborated further. 'Screen Education encourages children to be creative and imaginative. It teaches them co-operation and consideration. It helps them to think and to organize their thoughts. It teaches them responsibility.' These surely should be the aims and objectives of everything we do for children in the classroom. There was no indoctrination. There was little if anything told. There was nothing written down for memorization and feed back at exam time. The children learned by doing. In this school the growth of each pupil is assessed by his teachers on his day to day, and week to week performance. The happy involvement of the students in their screen education program adds zest and meaning to all other aspects of their learning.

During our week's visitation we saw several short films made by school children themselves. A number were masterpieces; others were quite ordinary. We met screen education teachers and media specialists by the dozens. All use the media to cut across subject disciplines and to present an integrated approach to living and learning. We were told that only when children are involved in film making can they learn to appreciate the media to the fullest. This, I well understand, for film making is to screen education as essay writing is to the Language Arts.

To make education relevant to the needs of boys and girls in today's society is not an easy task, but somehow we must find the way to stop educating them for yesterday. Today's children are literally swimming in an electronic culture with very little guidance if any. In order that they may cope successfully with the subtle powers of the media, boys and girls need help. Surely it is the school's responsibility to teach them the language of the media, to help them to distinguish between truth and falsehood, to help them make judgements and to establish values. What words, picture, and sound do not say is often more important than what they do say.

> 'In a world that is becoming increasingly insensitive to both the inanimate and the human environment, it is crucial that the teacher promote sensory awareness in the classroom, to help students to come to their senses. All teachers are faced with the precarious and increasingly uncomfortable situation of competing with more subtle teachers outside the classroom — the media magicians who shape our lives day after day with a flood of images and information.'

Now available for school use is a wealth of excellent short films, true works of art, many of which are films with a few words. The media are our best friends, if only we can open our eyes, and learn to use them in living and learning situations. They are powerful resources, the most potent aids ever devised for real education.

Additional Notes

International Conference on the Media in Education, Halifax, 1968

Dr Harold E. Wigren, Associate Director of the Division of Educational Technology, National Education Association, USA, a keynote speaker at the Conference, stated:

> 'Unquestionably, children themselves need to use the media to express their own ideas and feelings and to get their ideas across to other people. Up to now, we have encouraged media use so children could have access to someone else's ideas. We may have overlooked the enormous possibilities of children using all types of media for creating and expressing their own thinking. Technology is becoming sophisticated enough to help us with this need. Children are shooting their own 8 mm films to report on projects to their class, or to express their feelings about a concept or a situation they are facing, just as they do on canvas. Teen-age movie producers are on the rise and are now featured in annual film events. Because of their lifelong contact with film and television, children should be encouraged to make creative educational use of media as part of their own natural means of self-expression. One school provides television camera equipment so children can create their own television programs and get the "feel" of the medium.'

Canadian Association of Screen Education

A CASE Conference was held at York University, Toronto, June 18-21, 1969. Registration exceeded 400, the majority of whom were practicing screen education teachers from the schools of Ontario who work under the guidance and direction of the Ontario Department's Assistant Superintendent of Screen Education.

Father John Culkin, Director, Center for Communications, Fordham University, New York—Keynote speaker stated:

> 'Every time a child views a film or television program, pieces of himself are attached. There is instant feedback. Motion pictures are in reality "Emotion" pictures. Through the study of the media children become aware that they not only have bodies, but emotions as well. They learn to discover themselves, their strengths and their weaknesses. No longer can we afford to neglect the emotional developments of our youth.'

In addition to a number of inspiring addresses, the Conference offered some two dozen Seminars. Topics included: **Film Study Courses; Screen Education as an Integrative Force in the Elementary School; Morons, and Movies; The Hidden Language in Film and Television; Films as a Counter Environment; Student Film Making; Language Experiences Through Films; A New Kind of Seeing and a New Kind of Knowing.**

Screen Education in Nova Scotia

1. The 1969 Session of the N. S. Summer School for Teachers —

2. Clark Rutherford School, CFB Cornwallis — A Screen Education program, implemented during the school year 1968-69 with workshops for teachers and board members, and classes in film appreciation and film making.

3. Cornwallis District High School, Kings County — Students of this School recently interpreted by means of film and tape their assessment of traditional education.

National Organizations Promoting Screen Education

1. The Canadian Home and School and Parent-Teacher Federation.

2. The Canadian Citizenship Council.

3. The CEA-NFB Advisory Committee —

'The Institute is designed to explore the social and personal consequences of film and television. It will do this within a context of contemporary learning and culture. Our initiative in this project has been prompted generally by widespread interest and in particular by resolutions received from the CEA-NFB Advisory Committee, The Canadian Home and School and Parent-Teacher Association, the Canadian Citizenship Council as well as a UNESCO sponsored recommendation stating that film and television are perhaps the most persuasive of all media. It goes on to say that an appreciation of these forms of communication, both in terms of their social influence and capacities as art, is fundamental to mankind.'

4. The Canadian Education Association —

'Whereas films, TV and popular culture become increasingly more important in the education of the student,

'Be It Resolved that the CEA encourage the introduction of screen education — the systematic study of popular culture — in Canadian schools, and that the CEA encourage the training of teachers to lead studies in this important area of education'.

Screen Education Summer School

The first Summer School for Screen Education in Canada was held in Montreal July 11 - August 19, 1969, with Mr Mark Slade of the NFB as Director. This Summer School since has become a regular part of the summer school program of McGill University.

'If these mass media should only serve to weaken or corrupt previously achieved levels of . . . culture, it won't be because there is anything inherently wrong with them. It will be because we have failed to master them as new languages, in time to assimilate them into our total cultural heritage'.

(Marshall McLuhan)

The German-Speaking Section WEF

Reports that a useful and necessary conference has just taken place on **10th-14th March, 1970. Conference on 'Teaching today — an International Survey'** at the Staatl Akademie, Calw, joint Chairmen: Professor Ernst Meyer (Chairman of the German-speaking Section) and Dr Bran of Calw, and announces an important meeting that is yet to come — **30th May, 1970 KONGRESS '70** on the occasion of the 10th Didacta, at Basel on Technical developments and their effectiveness in schools'. All aspects of the latest developments in audio-visual aids will be discussed and demonstrated.

WEF members and non-members (including students) are invited to apply for further particulars to: Herrn Hans Heller, 69 Heidelberg 1, Pädagogische Hochschule, Keplerstrasse 87, German Federal Republic.

BOOK REVIEWS

'Cross'd with adversity'

School Council Working Paper 27.
Evans/Methuen Educational. Price 11/3d.

Social deprivation and its effect on educational development has received so much attention in the last year or two in studies from the United States and Britain that one could easily be misled into an impression that investigations and documentation have been going on for years, and that to teachers it is old and familiar stuff. In fact there are a great many teachers whose training (and whose last contact with serious educational thought) took place before the study of socially and culturally disadvantaged children began to assume its proper importance. This reviewer, who started teaching less than 13 years ago, can recall the shock at meeting, in his first school, problems subsequently found to be not uncommon in similar schools, and yet which one had never heard of during training.

Working Paper 27 is the report of a Working Party set up by the Schools Council in March, 1967 to consider the education of socially disadvantaged children in secondary schools. The Working Party acknowledges that compensatory education should be a continuous process, begun even before school age. It is aware also that schools cannot remove social ills, but it believes that secondary schools can help 'society's young casualties' to survive the crushing burden of their environments and to achieve some degree of self-respect.

After a summary of the environmental factors connected with educational deprivation and the way this reveals itself in schools, the Working Party draws on the experience of a number of schools which provide accounts of some ways of approaching the problem, and case histories which bear testimony to the devoted care of many sensitive teachers, and the recommendations made, although not original, help to emphasise the message that the schools, given the head and the teachers who care, can do much to alleviate the suffering of disturbed children.

This factor of the supply of adequately equipped teachers is crucial. Unfortunately many are not sufficiently aware or sensitive. Teachers cannot be compelled to attend in-service courses, or even to read Schools Council publications. and therefore the suggestions which the Working Party make for including studies of social deprivation and compensatory education in teacher-training courses are important. Furthermore, in drawing attention to the shortage of appropriate in-service training available to experienced teachers, the Paper might provide a spur to some Institutes and Colleges of Education to establish courses.

Derek Marsland.

The Teaching of Politics

D. B. Heater
Published by Methuen. Price 19/–

The inevitable routine of school life tends to act as an anodyne, but from time to time most teachers experience intimations of reality. One of the most worrying of these is the realization that we are sending out into the world every year young men and women, some already able to vote, who despite a daunting veneer of sophistication, are politically infantile. Even intelligent sixth formers often leave school lacking a basic political vocabulary. Less academically able pupils

would seem even more vulnerable in a world battered with information and pressures in every kind of medium. Only their innate scepticism prevents their being the easy prey for any predatory demagogue.

This book offers several contributions germain to this central problem, from writers who are in some way engaged in the teaching of politics — a particularly lively and irreverent chapter being provided by Bernard Crick, the Professor of Political Theory and Institutions at Sheffield University. The book's aim is to stimulate discussion and possibly action in a field so long neglected. D. B. Heater, the Editor, indeed points out in his article on Teacher- Training, that not a single training college offers Politics as a main academic subject.

The contributors in their several ways attempt to analyse the problem; to examine how far the existing ways of tackling political education are effective; to suggest (Brenda Cohen's article is especially helpful here) the relevance of modern psychological theory to the choice of material and approach; and to make specific suggestions for classroom work.

Christopher Thompson's detailed account of his work with a Sixth Form preparing for the A level Politics paper; Dr Henderson's suggestion for World affairs Topics, and John Robert's comments on teaching Politics to Further Education students will be of special interest to practising teachers. John Robert's contribution particularly has the tang of real classroom experience, relevant not just to Further Education but to the secondary school. 'It is all too easy', he says 'for administrators and even practising teachers to put down on paper a systematic approach to a subject which in the classroom may never be delivered'. This has the reassuring ring of truth to anyone who has. within minutes of entering a classroom jettisoned a carefully prepared lesson in the face of a blank wall of non-interest, even hostility. and embarked on an impromptu discussion which often leads in completely unforseen and unprepared directions.

This very common classroom problem, acknowledged by John Roberts, seems to demand consideration of two further points. Firstly, it draws attention to the dilemma of the teacher, inadequately trained in the teaching of Politics, with limited spare time, as he attempts a task requiring immense knowledge, technique and maturity. This point is recognised in D. B. Heater's article, but inadequately dealt with in the book as a whole.

Secondly, how far can any teaching of politics, in the sense that this book understands it be attempted with the boys and girls who form at least a quarter of the secondary school population, whose verbal ability is well below average? These young people find it difficult to communicate with precision even their simplest thoughts and feelings. They find abstractions and consideration of two opposing points of view even more forbidding. At what stage can one most usefully help them to make sense of their assortment of prejudices, and headline assumptions? When is it meaningful to introduce political terms into a vocabulary yet inadequately formed? How can one present information in a stimulating way, without reverting to the sketchily journalistic approach of the newspapers to which they themselves cling?

These, for many teachers seem to be the really tough problems, and with these problems this otherwise stimulating book offers sadly little help.

Sheila Gordon.

Hammarskjöld

James L. Henderson
Methuen, 1969. Makers of the modern world series. 150pp. 25s. or 15s. paperback.

Other personalities in the series are Nasser and Peron. Hammarsjöld is singularly well suited to the biographer, the book is likely to appeal to a much wider public than the young students for whom it was originally intended, and it should stimulate a reading of **Markings** itself.

The Congo operation, for example, is told in vivid and dramatic terms as an adventure story that mounts in excitement. But Henderson also provides a masterly background sketch of these events, and he does also of the growth of the United Nations itself as an 'attempt to organise some kind of world order'. There are ample quotations from Hammarskjöld, including the famous self-question, which has been used to bolster the accusations of arrogance:

'Your responsibility is indeed terrifying. If you fail, it is God, thanks to your having betrayed Him, Who will fail mankind. You fancy you can be responsible **to** God; can you carry the responsibility **for** God?'

Henderson is at pains to point to Hammarsjöld's essential humility and considers that his constant self-vigilance, as revealed in the overall pattern of his life, refute such charges. At least sufficient evidence is given in the book to show what this argument is about.

Hammarskjöld cried 'If only I may grow: firmer, simpler, quieter, warmer'. In his life and the premonitions of his death he seemed to demonstrate that peculiar power which some men have of thinking and of acting too, whereas others, in the words of Pericles, become courageous from ignorance but hesitant upon reflection. In his Oxford lecture Hammarskjöld spoke of his concept of neutrality:

'It may be true that in a very deep, human sense there is no neutral individual . . . But what I do claim is that even a man who is in that sense not neutral can very well undertake and carry through neutral actions, because there is an act of integrity . . . there is no neutral man, but there is, if you have integrity, neutral action by the right kind of man.'

Criticisms of the book are of three kinds. Those of us who have heard Henderson lecture know how formidably he can weave together strands from other people's thought, but on the printed page — and there are barely a couple in sequence without — the wealth of quotation interrupts the flow of writing.

Secondly, even in the confines of this short book, one wishes the author had made some appraisal of the health of the UN since Hammarskjöld departed; and of the notion of an UN force, armed or unarmed. And indeed could he not have elaborated on questions of the size and sovereignty of nations?

To the publishers one might suggest that clearer indention is needed; that the calibre of college of education students, referred to on the dust-cover, surpasses that of first year undergraduates; and that a biographical note on the author would be of great interest to non-readers of the **New Era.**

Anthony Weaver.

Feeling and Learning

Edited by Margaret Rasmussen. Washington, D.C. 20016: Association for Childhood Education International, 3615 Wisconsin Ave., N.W. 1965. Pp. 96. $5.95.

This is primarily a picture book but what a picture book it is! Its message strikes deeply, states clearer and with greater intensity than words alone could accomplish.

We see children as they test their strength, as they experiment with new and old materials, as they feel the thrill of a new-found independence. We see children reaching for maturity through feelings.

The capacity to work creatively for long-term achievements, to plan for a better future for self and family, the nation and the world, depends upon a healthy maturing of feelings. Yet many in their attempts to advance the development of the cognitive processes, have tended to overlook the role of feelings and emotions in learning.

Over a hundred photos in FEELINGS AND LEARNING emphasizes learning as a function of the total organism and calls the reader's attention to the idea that the world is a child's classroom: that he learns out-of-doors; through the use of books and a variety of materials as well as through interaction with others. These photos should serve as a reminder that focus is on a child's healthy self-concept and making possible many types of experiences.

The photo sequences have been chosen so that they can be studied in sections on: self-realisation, curriculum, home and community experiences and human relations. Each photograph stands by itself and is worthy of study. The two captions are based on an underlying principle of child growth and development and the remarks a child might have made in such a situation. An example is the photo of a young child cuddled next to her father while he reads to her. The captions. 'Children Want To Be (an over-arching title for two pages) . . . identified with adults who are important to them', and 'Read it again. Daddy'. What child does not want the secure feeling of having the full attention of her Daddy?

Having said that FEELINGS AND LEARNING is a picture book, let us now look at the content by world community authors whose chapters are also illustrated with photos and highlighted with excerpts at the beginning. Parent-study groups will readily identify with the theme when they study the photos, captions and excerpts. Teachers, college students and scholars of child growth and development will want to read the entire chapters. Some excerpts follow.
H. Gerthon Morgan, Director, Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, writes in the Introduction:

"Each human being strives for self-fulfillment. self-realization. The process of achieving this goal is the process of learning . . . Each human being derives from his experiences those meanings that are uniquely his . . .

"But all experience occurs in a feeling climate . . . Experience does not occur independent of feelings nor does one's learning . . .

"It is not recognized that just as experiences become organized, so do feelings and emotions. This feeling-and-emotion backlog is a strong determinant in the perceptions of individuals as they face new and continuing opportunities for learning.'

Lois Barclay Murphy, Research Psychologist, The Meninger Foundation, Topeka, Kansas, states,

"The growing-up process includes the maturing of feelings as well as the maturing of understanding and skills, and the feelings of the child have much to do with the process of development of his skills and knowledge . . .

"The hungry, diappointed, angry or frightened child is too preoccupied with such feelings to be free for positive satisfactions and delights of learning for its sake."

Dorothy E. M. Gardner, formerly of University of London Institute of Education, writes,

". . . the basis of learning is emotion . . .

"We think of play particularly as the way in which children gratify wishes and express feelings . . . But in attempting to gratify a wish the child learns and so learning becomes valued in its own right. Feelings and learning are inextricably related."

Anna Freud, Director, Hampstead Child-Therapy Clinic, London, states,

"There are no objective facts in the early years, only subjective ones.

". . . reason may be present (in the young child) but behaviour is governed by fears, wishes, impulses and fantasies . . .

". . . nothing happens in the world which (is) not immediately connected with the child's own feelings, wishes, experience, which make it so difficult for us to understand the child. The feelings of other people do not count."

Laura Hooper, Professor Emeritus of Education, Pennsylvania University, Philadelphia, clarifies this statement:

"To recognize the instrinsic worth of the individual child means . . . providing a challenging environment in which he can build a stronger, surer, steadier step each day and so approach the future with courage, confidence, and a feeling of self-worth."

Merl E. Bonney. Distinguished Professor of Psychology. University of North Texas, Denton, in his brief and powerful statement entitled, 'Attaining Psychological Maturity' writes:

". . . contrary to the picture often presented of the ideal person as possessing . . . virtues such as responsibility, unselfishness, kindness, modesty and generosity . . . the psychologically mature person is perceived as highly diverse and complex in his responses, yet integrated.

"The mature person is able to make decisions on his own . . . but he is also highly characterized by dependence on others . . . not . . . overdependence . . . but sincere need for advice, counsel and personal support of others whom he respects.

"The mature person is generally hard-working, responsible person . . . but he must . . . exhibit the joy of spontaniety, enjoy total relaxation . . . without feeling guilty.

". . . highly creative persons not only work hard but also have the ability 'to fool around', tap unconscious resources in themselves, follow intuition and feelings, and let their minds incubate in ways that would seem

inefficient to an unsympathetic observer. An integrated personality is one in which all sources and forms of being are nurtured toward fruition."

Readers, find an easy chair at the end of a hard day and enjoy whatever parts of FEELING AND LEARNING that strikes your fancy at that moment!

Reviewed by Lucile Lindberg, Professor of Education, Queens College of the City Universitiy of New York, Flushing, New York.

NEW WRITING

The Chinese Garden

Robert Berry

Yesterday I found what I thought
was true love
You sat in the chinese garden
beneath the straining sunflowers
with your small white feet
lazily dividing the still waters.
I found you, and called to you
and slowly you turned your head.
I received a smile
and I held your hand.
Together we looked at each other.
I was sure it was true love.
Quietly you stood up,
and gave to me a flower.
Without a word I went home
gently turning the flower in my hand.
I laid the flower in a glass above the stairs
and dreaming I went to bed.
In the morning I stood upon the stairs
and confused, I saw the shattered glass
laying in a thousand shimmering splinters.
I saw the flower with its petals
strewn, lost upon the floor
spattered by drops of water.
Blindly I ran down to the garden
and looked into the pool.
There I saw your sodden kimono
surrounded by floating homeless petals.

Ginger at Braybridge

Elizabeth Rea (aged 13 years)

'I'm so happy, Mum to get away from this place. Oh sure, it was okay when we started off but you've got to agree it's a bit much. They say it's a great place for us.'

The house was cold and damp. The Grey's had lived there for three years. The house had been crossed off the list, condemned. But who would care. We had tried to be cheerful. Jim, my little brother, had died when he was just twenty months, my little sister Beth had asthma. My big brother Ginger was a cripple. But now there was new light.

It was the day before the great day. Now that Dad had lots of money which he had inherited, he thought it was best if Ginger was sent to a home. I was horrified at even thinking that Dad could be so cruel and send my dearest brother away, but he did.

Ginger had gone, just I and Beth left. We moved that next day. It was a cold morning, but I felt a little happy for this was the day. We walked to our new house. The furniture was to come shortly after. We got inside the house. It was fantastic, everything was just, was just . . . beautiful, my heart leapt with joy, but sank again as I stopped to think of poor Ginger. Yes, poor Ginger. I remember Mum not even kissing him Goodbye. Dad just sat there reading his paper. I never in my life saw Mum and Dad act like this before, so cruelly, not caring what was going to happen to him, not knowing to what kind of place he was destined. We were happy now, but was Ginger.

The house had everything, even hot water. Mum didn't seem to care anymore. Dad was happy drinking and smoking. Beth seemed to get worse, but they did not seem to notice anymore. It wasn't like it used to be. We were all happy then, a quiet little family with Jim and Ginger.

Two years went past . . .

Dad was sitting in the big armchair smoking, with a bottle of booze. Mum was in the kitchen smoking and cooking. I was sent upstairs for sending for the doctor. Beth had not much time.

I heard something come through the door. It was a letter from Braybridge where Ginger had gone. I picked it up, I wanted to see how Ginger was getting on. But . . . 'Didn't I tell you to get upstairs'. 'Yes' I said 'Why you lazy brat!' I was beaten, but I had the letter and I didn't intend to give it to her. She took me upstairs and locked me in. I was glad because I had the letter. I opened it, shaking from the beating. He wrote 'Dear Mum (Dad)', I gulped! it wasn't for me. Should I go on? 'I hope you are well. You needn't send those fortnightly letters, or those monthly presents you know I can't use, how can I use them when my arms and legs are bent and paralysed? I won't be writing another letter. I was a mistake, wasn't I? Who was my real father? Who was that stranger who dressed me in the morning, who was my father? You hadn't enough guts to tell me. Yes! How did I know? Well, when you're shut away in the dark for eighteen hours or more only going out for rationed meals, well, I have had time to think, to work it out. Good God, you gave me enough clues. You beat me when I couldn't stand. You didn't give me enough to eat, you hid it from the others. You said I had to be on a diet, and what about poor little Jim? What happened to him? Did he really have a poor heart, or did you kill him? What, have you no conscience? Have you no care? Well, let God forgive what I am about to do for I will have sinned. God forgive you and me. Your Son, Ginger'.

I cried. Oh, how I cried. Poor, poor Ginger. Why should he have suffered? I heard the door unlock, Mum walked in she saw the letter sprawled across the bed. She didn't say a word, she picked up the letter and walked out. Under her breath she said 'You wait, my boy, you wait!'

She didn't lock the door. She went downstairs. I went into where Beth lay to see if she was alright. She lay motionless in the bed, I called but she didn't answer, she never gave a murmer. I went over; I touched her. She was . . . she was dead, dead. I couldn't believe it. I just couldn't, the tears ran down my face. I went to tell Mum . . . Dad. I heard them laughing — yes, laughing over Ginger's letter. I ran. Oh, I ran. So fast out of that house. I thought of killing myself, but I thought of Ginger. Could I get to Braybridge? Could I get to Ginger? Could I get to save Ginger? I started to thumb a lift. A big lorry came along the driver said he was going to London. I asked him to drop me off at Braybridge. The lorry seemed to be going more at 10 m.p.h. than 50. It seemed to take ages. But it came into view at last. I asked if he knew where the home was. But he didn't I thanked him kindly for the lift. I asked people along the road, they didn't seem to care or notice me. A big tall man came along. I asked him very politely. He told me and I was off like a shot. I guessed he was astonished. Maybe I was too late, could he have done it already. I rang the door bell. A young lady answered. I told her who I was looking for, she gave me most of the formal questions; she told me to follow her. On the way she told me that 'he had tried to get up from his wheelchair at the top of the stairs. He slipped down them and is under special care'. My heart was thumping like mad. She took me to a dark room, just lightly lit. There was a doctor and . . . and Ginger. I ran to his side. I called Ginger once or twice; he seemed to open his eyes and that's all he could manage. But then he seemed to realise that I was there, and he said 'Thank goodness' in a stretched voice. I was allowed to stay for a few days. One day the maid came to me and said 'There is great news, your . . . no I won't tell you, come and see' I went with her. I couldn't think what she wanted. Maybe Ginger was . . . was dead. But she said it was Great News.

I opened the door, and there was Ginger, walking? no it can't be. I ran into his arms, I wouldn't let go. 'I'm so happy' said Ginger. 'I'm so happy' I said . . .

Elizabeth's moving story was given us by Peter Bates who teaches English at that nursery for the creative arts, St. Paul's R.C. Secondary School, Haywards Heath, Sussex.

Who's Who?

DEREK MARSLAND

I am 35, married with two small children. Working class background. I failed the 11+, escaped from the secondary modern at 13 to a technical school, and eventually reached the 6th form at the local grammar school.

National Service (R.A.F.) 1953-55 singularly undistinguished. During this period I was offered a place at two universities to read English, but my L.E.A. wouldn't give me a grant. Instead I trained as a teacher in Leeds, and began teaching in a secondary modern in 1957. For the last 6 years I have been head of English in a secondary school in the West Riding, but at present I am on secondment at Nottingham, taking the advanced Diploma in Education. I'm hoping after the course to move into teacher training.

SHEILA GORDON

1949-1953 University College, London. B.A. (Hons.) History. Institute of Education — Postgrad Certificate.

Teacher in Primary, Secondary Modern Schools also Girls College (Queens, Lagos). Now at Kingsdale Comp. School, Dulwich (part-time). Published a book on World Problems.

GEORGINA CHILVERS

Contributor to our March issue, (where we misprinted her name as Geraldine) was educated in a south-east London comprehensive school, a teachers' training college in Bath and she has since taught in primary schools in London and Sussex. She is married and one of her hobbies is badminton.

ANTHONY W. BOLGER, M.A.

Trained as a teacher and taught in secondary and primary schools in England and Australia. He took a degree in psychology and a year in service training as educational psychologist and served for three years as a school counsellor. Since then he has lectured and counselled in a college of education, lectured on child guidance work in a Canadian university, worked for three years in England as educational psychologist and is now responsible for teaching educational psychology on the Keele training course for school counsellors.

MARY A. CRAWFORD

Born 1883 at Leith, daughter of a shipowner. Obtained Diploma in Social Service (Edinburgh 1914). Was first Secretary of Leith Girls' Club. Later did various jobs with Edinburgh Womens Citizens Association and other kindred bodies. Became Extension Secretary of Edinburgh Girl Guides i.e. the section connected with handicapped girls. In 1939 helped with evacuation of physically handicapped children from Edinburgh, and became Assistant Guider in charge of what ultimately became the Trefoil School for physically handicapped children. While there she organised and produced plays which were published in 1956 as 'Dramatic Scenes from Scottish History'.

MR C. E. EDWARDS

Is Inspector of Schools with Nova Scotia's Department of Education, Canada. Highlighting his educational career as a teacher, principal, supervisor, and Inspector of Schools, and as one of Nova Scotia's first appointments to the Adult Education Division, is his contribution to the development of Canada's Audio-Visual school program. His appointment to the Chairmanship of the Audio-Visual Education Committee of The Canadian Home and School and Parent-Teacher Federation in 1952 automatically brought him membership to the CEA-CBC Advisory Council (School Radio and Television) and the CEA-NFB Advisory Committee (Film). In 1962 Mr Edwards was Canada's only representative to the UNESCO sponsored International Conference on TV Teaching held at Oslo, Norway, and in 1966 he participated in an International Symposium on Screen Education held in Vienna. Since 1962 Mr Edwards has made a significant contribution to the development of Canada's Screen Education program. He was awarded an Honorary Life Membership by The Canadian Home and School and Parent-Teacher Federation in 1967, and was a recipient of Canada's Centennial Medal in 1967 for 'outstanding service to the nation'.

BOOKS RECEIVED

From September to December 1969

Merry Adventures of Robin Hood
Howard Pyle, Constable & Co., 19s.

Moral Education and the Curriculum
John Wilson, Pergamon Press, 14s.

I Can Read Books —
No Fighting No Biting
E. H. Minarik, Worlds Work 13s. 6d.
Ants are Fun
M. Myrick. World's Work, 13s. 6d.
The Roof Top Mystery
J. M. Lexau, World's Work, 13s. 6d.
Paperfolding to begin with
F. Temko & E. Simon, World's Work, 25s.
Plants are like that
A. H. Stone & I. Leskowitz, World's Work, 18s.

Guidance & Counselling in British Schools
H. Lytton & M. Craft, E. Arnold, 18s.

One Year Accounting Course Parts 1 & 2
Trevor Gambling, Pergamon, 21s. each.

Child Development
Norman Williams, Heinemann, 7s. 6d.

I Can Read Book —
I am Better than You
R. Lopshire, World's Work, 15s.
And So my Garden Grows
Peter Spier, World's Work, 16s.
Not Just One
A. H. Scott, World's Work, 16s.

The Physical World Nos. 1, 2 & 3
H. J. P. Keithley, Pergamon, 12s 6d. and 17s. 6d.

World Outlook Series —
The Lamps go Out
A. F. Alington, Faber & Faber, 6s.
The Russian Revolutions
D. Footman, Faber & Faber, 6s.

The Living Stream — An Anthology of Verse
Editor: J. Adam Smith, Faber & Faber, 9s.

Born for Joy
Mary R. Wedd, Macdonald, 21s.

Progressive Education: From Acady to Academe
P. A. Graham, Teachers College Press, $5.75

Religion & Slow Learners
K. E. Hyde, SCM Press, 30s.

Sea Fishing
C. Gammon, P. Hamlyn, 6s.
Garden Shrubs
P. Hunt. P. Hamlyn, 6s.
Atomic Energy
M. J. Gaines, P. Hamlyn, 6s.

Great Ideas in Economics
A. Pearce, Pergamon, 21s.

Junior World Encyclopaedia
Purnell, £6 6s.

Exploration English — 4 books
J. C. Gagg, Evans, 8s. each.

Lectures Francaises Vol. 6, 7, 8.
H. F. Kynaston-Snell, Pergamon, 8s. and 9s.

To Speak True
B. Mulcahy, Pergamon, 30s.

Going Metric in Catering
J. H. Croft, Pergamon, 10s.

Money, Prices & Incomes,
S. J. Simpson, Pergamon, 13s.

The Blindfold Game
E. Oakeshott, Pergamon, 35s.

Education & Development in Latin America
L. Gale, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 28s.

The School Teacher in England and the U. States
R. K. Kelsall and H. M. Kelsall, Pergamon, 25s.

Always with us
T. V. McCully, Pergamon.

Argua Peligrosas
N. J. Margetts and B. Mitchell, Pergamon, 9s.

Christmas
Edited by K. Calthrop, Pergamon, 30s.

Let's teach them right
Edited by C. Macy, Pemberton, 35s.

Inorganic & Physical Chemistry
R. S. Lowrie and H. J. C. Ferguson, Pergamon, 35s.

Some Aspects of performance in Mathematics in Australian Schools
J. P. Keeves and W. C. Radford, Australian Council for Educational Research.

Assyria & Babylonia
M. Chubb and J. Wyatt, G. Bles, 28s.

Case-Studies in Teaching
G. & P. Perry, Pitman, 10s. 6d.

Pupil & Teacher
J. Maxwell, Harrap, 30s.

Towards a Policy for the Education of Teachers
Colston Paper No. 20, Butterworth, £4 6s.

A Man who saved Robinson Crusoe
J. Poling, World's Work, 30s.

An Early I Can Read Book
Cat & Dog
E. H. Minarik, World's Work, 12s.

Practical Chemistry for Advanced Level
A. E. Somerfield, Pergamon, 12s.

Society, Schools & Progress in Israel
A. F. Kleinberger, Pergamon, 35s.

Fuels & Power
E. N. Davies and S. A. Johnson, Pergamon, 18s.

Unicorn Books —
The Tower by the Sea
M. de Jing, Hutchinsons Educational, 7s.
Strangers from the Sea
H. Thesen, Hutchinsons Educational, 8s.
The Cruise of the Dazzler
J. London, Hutchinsons Educational, 8s.
That's How it was
M. Duffy, Hutchinsons Educational, 10s.

English for Diversity
P. Abbs, Heinemann, 25s.

Britain & Europe 1789-1871
R. C. Birch, Pergamon, 30s.

The City Fathers
Colin and Rose Bell, Barrie, 70s.

Piaget
G. A. Helmore, Pergamon, 12s.

Maupassant
A. Kellett, Pergamon, 16s.

Swimming
D. Morris, Heineman, 8s.
Gymnastics
D. Buckland, Heinemann, 10s.
Games & Sports
W. M. Wise, Heinemann, 10s.

Paper
S. Stewart, Pergamon, 25s.

Creative Themes
H. Pluckrose, Evans, 18s.

Backwardness & Educational Failure
R. Gulliford, Nat. Foundation for Edu. Research 10s.

Team Teaching in Britain
J. Freeman, Ward Lock Ed., 30s.

Gifted Children and the Brentwood Experiment
S. A. Bridges, Pitman, 25s.

Junior Biographies — 10 titles
W. Charles, Blackie, 2s. 3d. each.

Themes —
Generations
Conflict
Men & Beasts
Imagination with Teachers Handbook
Edited by R. Jones, Heinmann.

Playbill One, Two & Three
Edited by A. Durband, Hutchinsons Educational, 8s each

Compass — An anthology of English Verse
Edited by S. Bolt, P. Mansell, J. J. Lewis
Hutchinsons Educational, 9s.

Concept Books — Social Research
M. Schofield, Heinemann, 8s. 6d.

Teaching History Vol. 1 No. 1
Teaching History Vol. 1 No. 2.
Historical Association, 6s 6d. each

Wings on your Fingers — Typewriting Manual
S. T. Stanwell & M. K. Swift, Pergamon, 35s.

Histories Amusantes a Jouer
W. B. Savigny, Pergamon, 8s.

The Nature of Caring
O. & E. Whitney, Pergamon, 13s.

The Family Reunion
T. S. Eliot, Faber & Faber, 8s.

Danny and the Dinasaur
S. Hoff, World's Work, 15s.

A Ghost named Fred
N. Benchley, World's Work, 15s.

Chester
S. Hoff, World's Work, 15s.

Aids to Teaching & Learning
H. Coppen, Pergamon, 25s.

Directory of Voluntary Organisations Concerned with Children
Edited by M. L. Kellmer Pringle, R. Davie & L. E. Hancock, Longmans, 70s.

Change in Art Education
D. Field, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 25s.

EDITORIAL NOTES

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Tel. No. Hadlow Down 389.

People I have talked to lately include a retired engineer in his eighty-first year whom I telephoned on Easter day and who spoke in a strong and ringing voice of life in his country village. 'I keep the car to drive to do my shopping twice a week. No one ever calls on me and often I only talk to anyone when I go shopping. You are not really wanted at my age.'

In the town in which I live a lot is done to find a real nitche in the life of the community for those who come to retire among them. Yet I wonder how many we never touch who would agree with my friend. Think of all the Mary Crawfords who are left to bloom unseen and the consequent loss of wisdom and humour for us.

A young man who gave up being quite well paid in estate agency to work in a centre for the mentally handicapped prior to seeking entrance to a university, talked of the centre. He used to take those in his care shopping, and to a hall for games once a week, and once he took some to a concert. They enjoyed this and his company but two senior members of the service were not pleased with his initiative or his suggestion for an increase in this sort of activity. Suggestion should not come from below. He would find the climate in Dunfermline better, I think.

When this issue reaches you the interdisciplinary working party on counselling in schools held in London will be over and Dr Anthony Bolger's article will relate, and promote talk.

We have printed two articles on Media recently, one in March 1970 and one in December 1969 by Peter Farrell and now we print a Canadian authority on this subject.

THE WORLD EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP in association with THE MONTESSORI SOCIETY

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

in honour of the centenary of the birth of Maria Montessori and of Unesco's International Education Year.

THE EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT APPROACHES TO PRIMARY EDUCATION

Chairman: Dr James L. Henderson

to be held July 24, 25 and 26, 1970, at the Froebel Education Institute, Grove House, Roehampton Lane, London S.W. 15.

The following speakers or participants in the International Forum are expected: Miss Brearley (Froebel), Mrs P. Wallbank (Montessori), Mrs S. Freudenthal-Lutter (Jena Plan), Professor L. Borghi (Univ. of Florence Inst. of Ed.), Miss M. Roberts (Univ. of London Inst. of Ed.), Madame D. Michel (Decroly), M. Bertrand (Freinet).

Lectures Discussion Groups Workshop Groups

Owing to demand, special arrangements are being made to accommodate all those who wish to attend, but early application is earnestly requested.

Fees, including registration fee: **Residents:** £7 10s. **Non-Residents:** £5
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Application Forms from: General Secretary, WEF 55 Upper Stone Street, Tunbridge Wells, Kent. (Telephone: T. Wells 21770).

All our issues offer theory and description of what we hope we are doing for students, what science and experience says they are like, and we suggest an ever widening field of co-operation. The original writing printed in this issue presents some realities. T. S. Eliot once said that 'human beings do not like and cannot bear very much reality.' Are children tougher and have the media helped? Can anyone afford fragmentation? Can anyone avoid it?

The ancient poet
Who pitied monkeys for their cries,
What would he say, if he saw
This child crying in the autumn wind?

From Kokin Shu by Ki no Tomonori (868-945 circa) and quoted by Basha in 'The Records of a Weather-exposed Skeleton'.

Due to Dr. J. L. Henderson being late back from his visit to Africa, the World Studies Bulletin has had to be delayed, and will not now appear until the **JUNE** issue.

BOOK REVIEW

Buda or Twenty Years in Sarawak, Borneo

John K. Wilson
The Tantallon Press Ltd., May Terrace, North Berwick, Price 50/-

This book may not yet have reached your notice as it was published privately in December 1969. The story of the author's many years of devoted work among the Dyaks of Sarawak makes fascinating reading and proves his theory that Community Development schemes can only truly succeed when adult education runs parallel to that provided for children. The initial aim of handing over to locally elected Committees of Progress the nine independent centres established was achieved with the help and example of three younger assistants, one of whom, Arthur Thwaites, contributes the fifty and more delicate line drawings which illustrate the book.

Ten carefully selected boys from their schools were sent between 1957 and 1967 to Nairn Academy. There they received education and training that fitted them to return to work among their own people who had helped from their limited resources to make this possible.

Iris Burgess.

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This issue was to be the first in which **New Era** appeared with an inset **World Studies.** But events ruled otherwise. Dr James Henderson was delayed in Africa and then had to proceed straight to Paris. So his issue of World Studies was not ready. We plan to print our combined issue a month later, in June. We are sending this issue to our new subscribers who have previously only taken World Studies. We shall first meet these new readers in this issue and without the supplement they expect. We hope the impact of an introductory encounter without an anticipated inset will encourage critical comment, contributions or even a life giving tension.

As the journal of the Word Education Fellowship we should have much in common with readers of the World Studies Bulletin. We plan to print research material to open our columns to new writers of any age group, and to reflect in our columns the educational ferment that is going on around us and the immense potential of the younger generation.

For this issue we have an article on 'Does History Have a Place in the School Curriculum?' by John Dwyfor Davies. This is suitable reading for the subscribers to World Studies as well as our own readers and the article is timely. There is a dearth of advertisements for history specialists and a dearth of jobs. The immense scope of history implicit in H. G. Wells' 'A Short History of the World' has lately been in eclipse but the time is ripe for a new look at some fundamental facts. We hope next month to print another contribution about history which is to appear in a volume to be published by Maurice Temple Smith and edited by Martin Ballard 'New Movements in the Study and Teaching of History'. We shall print Charles Hannam's essay on 'Prejudice and the Teaching of History'.

With the present interest in archaeology, comparative religion and in visual details of the life of other eras shown in enthusiasm for Georgian and Victorian objects and architecture among large numbers of the anything but highbrow, it is time that history was allowed in the curriculum. Why not let the young learn what they enjoy and make what they learn really enjoyable. John Masefield says in his 'Fragments' that lovely poem that shows a vision of history that is anything but fragmentary

> Troy Town is covered up with weeds,
> The rabbits and the pismires brood
> On broken gold, and shards, and beads
> Where Priam's ancient palace stood.

and we have Observer colour supplements on subjects like marine archaeology and teenagers dressed in a museum of uniforms, with beards like Shakespeare and the medals of all the ages and lovely maxi coats. They take their history with a sense of humour which might shock the over serious sociologists. Time passes.

Back Issues

The following back numbers of the Journal are required —

Volume 4	(1923)	No. 14
Volume 6	(1925)	Nos. 21, 22, 23 and 24
Volume 8	(1927)	No. 29
Volume 11	(1930)	No. 42
Volume 15	(1934)	Nos. 1 and 6
Volume 16	(1935)	No. 7
Volume 17	(1936)	No. 8
Volume 20	(1939)	No. 6
Volume 22	(1941)	Nos. 5 and 6
Volume 23	(1942)	Nos. 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6

If there are any readers who have any of the above copies of the Journal and would be willing to part with them, it would be appreciated it they would contact —

The Librarian, Education Library,
The University, London Road, READING.

Easter Conference — 'The School Counsellor — in the Dock : In the Witness Box'

April 2nd–3rd, The University of London Institute of Education, Malet Street, W.C.1.

F. H. Roberts, M.A., Ph.D. (London) A.B.Ps.S.

Perhaps many of you, like myself, had looked forward to 1970 as a kind of rest after a storm, as one of those years of comparative quiet and tranquility. I can see now that this is not to be; just one of those phantasies which make the return to reality all the more exhausting. How was I to know that counselling would come into its own and that there was to be a proliferation of courses, conferences and reports! It's all my own fault! I had toyed with the idea of Amsterdam, Hoxter's Conference on Counselling at the Hague. It was the aggression in me that really made the choice. I would have a field day instead at Malet Street! The theme for the E.N.E.F. Easter Conference was to be 'The School Counsellor: in the Dock and in the Witness Box'. My imagination conjured up the punitive final sentence as well as the hysterical outbursts. Somehow the macabre experience never materialised and my anticipations were left unfulfilled. Yet the analogy of a court of law with the practice of counselling forcibly reminded me of one important aspect common to both; that the depth of feelings is not revealed by a literal understanding of the verbal exchanges. In retrospect, the defendant seems to have refuted the charges and it is not inappropriate that it was in Easter week that he was given a new lease of life.

Thanks to English New Education Fellowship, we were meeting again, some of us for the third year running, to discuss counselling particularly in its implications and impact in the educational field. For most they could 'recover' from the Conference on Saturday and Sunday, but for my sins — I am a priest as well as a psychologist — my reporting efforts have to be made on just another working day!

Mr Raymond King, the Hon. Secretary wasn't boasting when he commented on the 'high calibre' and 'the range of experience' of those attending, for a break-down showed that there were —

Teachers (Heads of Departments, Housemasters, Special)	17
Heads or Deputies of Schools	6
Inspectors	4
Trained and practising school counsellors	11
Other counsellors	12
College of Education Lecturers	3

in addition to the seven members of the E.N.E.F. Council with their varied experience and an American teacher-counsellor on study leave for one year. Of the practising counsellors Keele, Reading and Exeter Universities were very well represented and Mr Smart, the Chairman of the National Association of School Counsellors was also present. Mr King explained his intention to keep both mornings for Plenary Sessions and the afternoons for group discussions. He had done his homework very well dividing us into three groups, carefully maintaining the balance of interdisciplinary representation. I am sure that it was for good counselling reasons that he 'put asunder' husband and wife when evident, but I am uncertain as to who made the Freudian slip of saying 'rent asunder'.

Miss Mary Stapleton introduced Dr James Hemming our Chairman for the Conference, that infectious humanist with a spiritual flair, who sees mankind and every individual as engaged upon a search into the nature of subjective and objective reality. 'To live is to explore, to pursue understanding, to seek answers'. 'Infectious' because he is a born optimist — and I love him for this — 'we are squarely faced with the responsibility for our own lives and for bringing about a higher quality of life on this planet'.

No long boring speeches here but with a short succinct synopsis of the present day situation, he surely echoed our innermost thoughts when he said that there was a widespread feeling that society in general and education in particular were not giving enough pastoral care. We had to recognise the historical development of larger and larger units and what

this involved. For a moment I was back in my own counselling situation of 1800 boys, listening to the tiny first years reiterating their fears of this glass chamber of horrors and of their frightened feelings as from the bottom of the stairs they gazed up and up and up. How lost and lonely they feel. Against this, I remember my pride in taking a senior mistress from the North of England to the eigth floor and then with horror recognised her symptoms of acrophobia! On the one hand there is the continual pressure to be swallowed up in the material masses, on the other the rapid disappearance of the traditional authoritarian structure has meant an increasing emphasis upon the individual. Every strata of our society is marked in this way by the swirling of day-to-day events and this affects the adolescent in particular. The counsellor is some sort of fixed point of reference in this ever changing perspective. But he is given a mixed reception ranging from enthusiastic support to downright condemnation. In this gathering, Dr Hemming felt, we had the resources to explore the whole range of reactions as we come face-to-face with new and emerging ideas.

He called on Mr Michael Scott as a practising counsellor to 'unburden' himself of his passionate plea to Headteachers and those in position of authority and influence in the educational field. It had three features —

1. A plea to give counselling a realistic opportunity to prove itself at the hands of trained counsellors,
2. A plea that all teachers might stop and consider the emotional climate of their school,
3. A plea for an increasing awareness of mental health problems of both pupils and teachers (as someone was to remark later 'who counsels the counsellor').

It was pathetic that those bodies on the fringe of education were vociferous in advocating 'counselling' when 'self-awareness' must surely be a function of education itself, unless we conceive of ourselves merely as practitioners and propagators of information. Sometimes we were sidetracked in trying to analyse the elements of counselling in the teachers role, as though they were distinct functions, different in quality as well as quantity. To think of education in this sense, is a very forward looking concept, fully in tune with contemporary thinking, but perhaps as a measure of present day practise may be a little unrealistic. But there again, that is up to each one of us whether as teacher or counsellor. What we can be quite sure about is that we cannot remain in the past if we are to be of service to the students of today who are the adults of tomorrow. In this sense, some militants felt that the only solution was a radical alteration in the whole system of secondary education. Whatever we may say of the militant minority, at least they jog us out of our complacency. Perhaps, Dr Hemming best summed up at least one aspect of the relationship between 'teaching' and 'counselling' when he made the analogy with the school nurse. Previously when a child was hurt the teacher gave first aid; now that a nurse is present, he is still capable and available to render such service, but he is glad to have her in attendance.

Whether as counsellors in action or as counsellors in training, there seemed to be a great deal of anxiety over the practical problems of confidentiality, and in the dialogue with Headmasters it was apparent that it had much more to do with interacting personalities, their frustrations and fears, than most of us were consciously aware of. 'Confidentiality' has always seemed to me a developmental anachronism, an adult Aunt Sally, which is meaningless and insignificant to the pupil or student in those terms and at his age. It is only part of a larger problem of de-personalisation. It is not a question of disclosing his secrets so much — if you really have a secret you tell no one — but whether you will treat him as a person to be considered or whether you will treat him in varying degrees as a thing, of no consequence, to be talked about but not to converse with. It is similar to the problem of taking notes or keeping records. My practice is to explain all this at my first interview. 'If I had a good memory, I would keep it all in my head' . . . about my taking notes. 'Come and have a look at my file and my notes. You will notice I have numbers and I am the only one who knows the key' . . . to preserve anonymity. 'Of course I will talk to your Form Tutor, Housemaster and so on as I am concerned to know how you

are getting on. I am here essentially to help you and you alone. If ever I want to talk with your parents or they want to see me, I will discuss it with you first' . . . to let him know my role and relationships. As the Chairman of N.A.E.C. Mr Smart explained, 'In Hounslow, there are three counsellors, each operating quite differently yet particularly suited to their own school'. But I know they would have the same respect for the integrity of the pupil's personality whether at the age of 11 or 18.

Not only is it important to 'screen' those who intend training as counsellors because the question of personality or temperament is of paramount importance but it is also necessary as Dr Hemming intimated that if the Head is to 'trust' his counsellor he must be assured that he can handle the 'explosion' of adolescence. After all it is the headmaster who holds the responsibility in law. A useful analogy was made with the physics laboratory and radioactive material. The Head feels confident because he has someone who is trained to deal with any emergency. He is not afraid then to delegate his authority. So ultimately the question of 'confidentiality' is one of 'confidence' which cannot be demanded but only created and nourished.

As evidence of his belief in 'controlled diversification' Dr Hemming introduced first Mr George Lyward of Finchden Manor, 'please don't call it a school'. I heard Alistair Cooke quite recently comment on the different understanding of the same English word. He said his daughter in the wilds of Wiltshire had referred to the first night reaction of a play as 'it went down like a bomb'. How could a bomb be good say the Americans! Well George went down like a bomb when he kindly came to Tulse Hill to speak to the Staff. He came to 'therapy' through education, and I came to 'education' through therapy. That is why we have so much in common, even though he is explosive at times. He deals with the emotional side through subject teaching. 'Mensa', he is at pains to explain, means 'the measured thing' but 'not in any moralistic or paternalistic sense'. Finding limits is the important aspect of education. The pupil has to learn to say 'No' and set limits; otherwise life and living is 'terrifying'. A great deal of the teaching in schools today is fundamentally wrong and he sees a nemesis overhanging society and the world . . . 'with the pollution of the sea we've got six years grace, with the pollution of the air ten years, and in education we are rapidly running out of time'. We have to produce a generation now who will do something about it tomorrow. He talks about the 'other' as something over and above the 'intellect' and advocates that University students should be trained with 'the heart' as well as the 'mind'. I suspect this is why he finds so much of social science today irrelevant. "I have never known therapy to be successful with psychopaths or schizophrenics without a consideration of the 'other' ".

Another 'window' on counselling was presented by the Rev. Peter Pykett, School and Community Officer, Church of England Youth Council. He wanted to break down the barriers between school and community. The school should no longer be seen in isolation. This is why he questioned the assumption of a school based counsellor. Why not in the local development centre, he asked, where everyone in the community would meet? He outlined the points in its favour. At this stage in counselling, it was imperative to experiment through a wide variety of situations and personalities, so why not a Youth Leader as counsellor! This argument is even greater in a time of teacher shortage, and with career prospects and promotion this meant a loss of a 'counsellor' at least in function. Could you really divorce the counsellor from 'punishment' unless he was situated outside the school? 'Teamwork'. 'Counselling the teacher' and 'continuity' between school and work naturally fitted into the concept of the local development centre. He questioned the advisability of transplanting the brain-child nourished in and for an American environment.

Mr Crombie, a school counsellor on study tour from the United States, outlined his role and made us envious of a 'case-load' of only 450 although he emphasized that 'more was expected of him; more sheparding, more person-to-person counselling'. I was to understand later that he meant something quite different

from what I do in that last remark. He was plainly impressed by the 'screening' of the University post-graduate courses, our initial training and the continuity of our in-service training. His own 'qualifications' were gained over 'five summers', separate and different not only in location and time, but in theory and teaching. I felt a little exhausted by the obvious load of mechanical minutae which is the American counsellor's lot to perform, his involvement in the testing programmes and paper work. I certainly felt the need for someone to counsel the counsellor — me! The rigidity of the requirements for high school graduation, the occasions when they had to sit in 'judgement' on recommendations made by teachers, the state and federal laws which had prior consideration when 'confidentiality' was discussed made me think again about my transatlantic exchange. But obviously, like our respective cars, the counsellor there is the creation of both the needs and the requirements of the American scene and rightly so. He confirmed that 'counselling was the best answer for youth' but doubted its efficacy with 'forward thinking youngsters'. I have met many psychologists who fear that counselling will produce conformist rats rather than interesting rebels! The H.M.I. who commented that 'the United States is not so much a country as a Continent' was right to caution any generalisation of the particular in this connection. There are even more differences of selection and training and so on among counsellors in the U.S.A. than here. I think required reading for all counsellors in this country should be Boy & Pine 'Client-centred counselling in a Secondary School' (published Houghton Mifflin) to show the kind of direction in which counselling is moving at least in some parts of the States.

Dr Hemming at the Plenary Session on the second day sensed that the 'trial' lacked the sensational that I had been looking forward to so much! He challenged both prosecution and defence to bring out into the open their frustrations, resentments and violent feelings. He asked the counsellors to 'say what is wrong with the schools' and Headmasters what 'happens when the strange animal is added to the managerie!' 'Let's get at each other' was his considered advice. I cannot say that at any time was it necessary to clear the court because of unruly behaviour but a good deal of suppressed feelings were released on both sides, in the Plenary and in the groups.

A woman counsellor from Liverpool impressed her group with the 'immense possibilities present in an impossible situation, a head unfavourable to counselling, no school psychologist or Child Guidance Clinic, a school compelled by the needs for survival to use habitually physical and other means of compulsion, and a time table which included 20 periods with large remedial groups'. 'It was clear' says Mr Pratt, the reporter for the group 'that she was completely undaunted and going back cheerfully for more!' Another counsellor was almost apoplectic over his treatment by a Headmaster. We were given a very vivid scene of real confrontation — the Headmaster calling in higher authority figures and the counsellor his colleagues — over 'confidentiality'. As someone said later about the Conference 'I agree with everything that has been said'. I felt for both sides in the dispute. The counsellor considered this to be the 'crunch' upon which the profession would have to pronounce on 'now', otherwise they will not be able to function. The Head too felt he must hold a tight rein on his legal responsibilities. God, what a tangle it seemed until one remembers that we all must look below the surface, beneath the words, to the feelings, the insecurities and inadequacies of both sides in such a drama. Perhaps, I am being unbelievably idealistic when I say that to me the only solution in this and countless other points of controversy must be found in the stability and emotional maturity of the counsellor himself — I know it must sound priggish but I think you know what I mean — because it is the 'affective' or feeling side of the personality which is his special field of study, not found in books or diplomas but in the greater self awareness arising out of experiential training formal and otherwise.

An educational psychologist from Scotland felt that it was 'essential to make friends with the Head' and that it was important for the counsellor to have a status otherwise the Head

would not converse with someone not on his level. George Lyward, ever the idealist, remarked 'it is high time the hierarchical system gave place to one of relationships'. There was a very strong difference of opinion about whether or not a counsellor should accept the challenge to go into a school where the climate was not conducive to counselling. The Chairman of the N.A.E.C. had a realistic caution to give here—and he showed great feeling on the point—'I know of too many counsellors who had their hearts broken in this way'. Perhaps at this stage in counselling it is 'better to be safe than sorry'. Incidental to my point here yet central to the thinking of his own Association was his complaint that many Headmasters were 'grooming' or 'appointing' counsellors who were untrained yet those who had done the course were unemployed in that capacity.

A Headmaster from Surrey who was very sympathetic to counsellors echoed perhaps a realistic approach in this stage of development in counselling. He felt that counsellors while 'new and feeling their way as a profession should be appointed to schools where the way had been prepared for them by the Headmaster with the tutors and school psychologists. It was not the function of the man which was important so much as the man himself. He thought the Counsellor should be additional to the School establishment, have a high status (Grade C allowance) and be given complete responsibility in his own sphere.' Miss Voller, a General Inspector of Education for Surrey said that at this stage we could not afford to take risks and that we must all work to create an atmosphere where counselling will be given an opportunity to work. She evidenced the goodwill that existed among Heads in her own authority by the number who were with her here at the Conference. This was not true only two years ago.

Dr James Hemming wisely did not try to sum up our deliberations, because it would be both artificial and premature to give an impression of finality in a constantly changing situation. Only slowly — perhaps too slowly for counsellors and too swiftly for others — would real clarification emerge. A sympathetic H.M.I. said that the result of the Conference was that he was 'committed' but not 'converted' because the counsellors although strong on opinions were weak on facts, and helpfully pressed us to do something on this point. 'The rudimentary facts' were essential before those in authority could feel justified in spending public money in this way.

The Conference ended on a firm note of encouragement from our Chairman, Dr Hemming to action. We must make out a case for a counsellor as an addition to the quota and bearing in mind the H.M.I.'s constructive criticism we must not be afraid to involve ourselves in a 'sales promotion' directed at the administration. There was neither the time nor the facilities at present to do an objective, scientifically controlled study, but we could at grass roots level accumulate 'case histories' and 'recommendations' from parents, teachers and others which demonstrated the value of counselling. Both the Hon. Sec. of E.N.E.F. and the Chairman of the National Association of Educational Counsellors were prepared to handle such evidence. Dr Hemming has certainly fired all of us present with an enthusiasm for our public relations role.

BOOK REVIEW

A Universe to Explore

A Space Sciences Source Book for Junior High School Teachers
National Science Teachers' Association, Washington, D.C. 1969. 139 pp (paper). $4.00

Twenty junior-high-school teachers developed this compilation of activities and background readings, a project which was the joint effort of National Aeronautics and Space Administration and National Science Teachers' Association, both of United States. Chapters include 'The Earth — A Platform in Space', 'From Energy — Action and Reaction', 'Design for Flight', 'Power — A Bridge to Space', 'Electrons — Accelerated Messengers', and 'The Students Experiment'. Included also are appendices with sources of information and films; Bibliographies for students and teachers and an index.

Much of the equipment needed for the activities can be constructed from simple materials and most of the commercial supplies indicated are readily available in junior-high laboratories. Line drawings of apparatus and set-up are given for most activities.

Few of the activities suggested are novel and may be found in other sources. However, the worth of this volume is that a large number of these activities are accumulated in one reference. A liberal amount of measuring, graphing, and space mathematics is used throughout. Recommended for junior-high school physical-science and earth-science teachers.

Reviewed by John R. Pancella.

A New Education Act. Time for a Change

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The first rumblings from the government have been heard and discussion of the prospect of a new Education Act and its content is now building up in the educational press. It would therefore seem important in this initial phase, before vested interests have dug themselves into their entrenched positions and made compromise more difficult, to consider some of the ways in which the bases of the 1944 Act may need to be changed to meet the different demands of our rapidly changing society.

Already suggestions have been heard that the Act will have to be comprehensive in a way that the 1944 Act never was and that this will include among other things the realm of higher education. Whilst not disagreeing with this in principle, it would appear that there are other equally important ways in which the Act should be flexibly comprehensive and it is the purpose of this article to discuss one of these, the area of the religious content of education and the Dual System. It will argue the need for an accommodation on this issue to be brought about by outline legislation at the national level which allows the maximum flexibility to Local Authorities to work towards, in their own time and way, a fully comprehensive system which can contain all denominations and communities.

The matters of denominational education and the religious content of education are particularly delicate, touching as they do those aspects of personality which are fundamental to the structure of each individual's view of life. Moreover, they both have such a long tradition as part and parcel of English education, that it is all the more difficult for a change to be made. All the more reason why Ministers and other persons in positions of responsibility in education should proceed with caution in the first initial soundings and utterances that they make concerning the place to be given to religion in the new Act. All the more reason why they should not at this stage be heard to be saying that because a majority of parents allegedly do not want any change in the present system of 'Corporate Act of Worship' and 'Interdenominational Agreed Syllabus Religious Instruction' in state schools that there should therefore be no change. This has the immediate effect of prejudicing and discussion which may take place as a preparation for the Act and by setting artificial boundaries to such discussion stunts any real chance of bringing about an improved provision of education for all children. And because of the close connection between the religious basis of state education and the continuance of a demand for sectarian denominational education it also stunts any attempt at a new approach to the Dual System. Moreover it is a non-sequitur for a government which is maintaining a highly unpopular Incomes Policy, which if similarly put to the vote and decided in that way would almost without doubt be rejected. Furthermore, it can be argued that once elected it is the 'job of government to govern' creatively and this by its very nature, will imply at least on occasions progress into territory which is unknown or unrecognized by the population at large. It would therefore seem of importance for the government if it wishes to pursue its policy of comprehensive education (as it surely does) to at least attempt to envisage some formula which at national level can provide an education in each locality with its differing needs, which is not only socially and educationally comprehensive but also religiously comprehensive. There are a number of ways in which this could be done, whilst at the same time assuring the religious communities concerned that their own interests and those of their members are being safeguarded or even enhanced. This is perhaps a particularly propitious time to propose a change (even in spite of the Anglican-Methodist Unity vote) in view of the major upheavals which are taking place within the Christian churches and the difficulties which some of them are obviously having, in some places, in providing a reorganized system of secondary education; and this not solely for financial reasons, although of course this is a weighty consideration.

What is proposed is a comprehensive provision of education either at the primary or secondary level, or ideally in the long run at both, where all children of all denominations could feel equally at home regardless of their religious differences and perhaps more important still, regardless of whether their religion is a Christian one or not. One of the tragedies of our present organization, and it is a tragedy regardless of the numbers involved, is that in our state schools, Catholics, Jehova's Witnesses, Jews and members of other non-christian religious communities feel obliged in very many cases, to opt their children out of occasions when the school comes together because what happens there offends their own beliefs. And the same applies to periods of so-called 'inter-denominational instruction' the content of which by the way, is not nationally set down. What emotional and psychological harm this exclusion has, has as yet not been sufficiently assessed. Yet it would seem reasonable to assert that if it could be avoided then progress, both social and educational, would have been made. The type of announcement allegedly made in some schools to bring in the 'other children' at the end of Assembly can hardly be conducive to cohesion and tolerance, where some are expected to wear their religion for all to see, whilst all reasonable men would surely agree that a man's religious belief is his own personal affair.

Any scheme is thus faced with the need to change not only that more manifest division the Dual System itself, but also the rather more subtle, and in areas with non-Christian immigrant populations, rather more important division within the state schools. How could this be achieved? First of all the legitimate interests of all citizens of good will, of all religious communities, not just Christian, must be safeguarded and yet this must be done without prejudicing the religiously comprehensive school, which is a seemingly desirable objective. This could perhaps be done by extracting from the corporate meeting its religious significance. If it is still considered necessary to have a corporate gathering of the school each day, and many schools have already 'illegally' decided that it is not, then let it be a non-religious gathering which is yet truly corporate. Many schools are already experimenting with non-Christian assemblies, where local circumstances seem appropriate.

Secondly, if it is felt that the school should make available some type of religious instruction, then why have a 'milk and water' compromise of an 'Agreed Syllabus', for the aim can just as easily be achieved, especially with the larger numbers involved in comprehensive schools, on a denominational basis that should be demanded by the parents at the school level. If provision of say two or more lessons of R.K. were blocked across a year on a comprehensive school timetable, then it should be possible to provide from amongst the staff or by an appropriate 'outsider' coming into the school (as happens in France) a spectrum of denominational religious education which will satisfy the demands of parents, and these are very often much less extreme than those of organized religion, yet without tearing the children and their communities apart for a substantial part of their school lives. Those who wished their children to take part in some interdenominational religious instruction, along the present lines, could do so, and yet no child need feel different or excluded, because he or she was opted out. Similarly demands by those parents who wished their children to have a 'Humanist' education, could be accommodated, if they could find a suitable person to teach it. In any case the responsibility would be placed squarely on the parents and the religious or ideological community at the local level. There are very real advantages (for society as a whole) to be gained from this type of accommodation, which cannot be guaranteed by any Dual System, perhaps the most valuable of which are tolerance and better understanding and a chance of early and developing friendship across religious and community boundaries. And any move which contributes to this is surely worth investigating.

It would be naive, however, to imagine that such an accommodation could be achieved without lengthy and delicate negotiations with all parties concerned, but particularly with the two main Churches, which might feel the wish

to object to such a scheme. And it is here that one has to emphasize the very real gains which the Churches themselves have to achieve for their own communities as a whole, which would not otherwise be possible. For if the state is going to ask these two Churches in particular to give up either their primary or secondary schools or both in certain localities at first, then it must have something real and tangible to offer in exchange. The benefits and advantages which can be offered, are, it is submitted, both real and tangible. Firstly the Churches have played a very valuable part in the development of English education and have invested immense financial and human capital in it. Negotiations would therefore have to be carried out with all parties as equals. From this position of equality the state can offer provision of a denominational instruction, appropriate to the wishes of the parents, as expressed at local level for all children involved and by a teacher/instructor approved by the respective church, community etc. This is more than the Churches themselves can offer at the moment, in spite of the expenditure of vast sums, for provision of Church of England and Roman Catholic education in Church schools is well below the total numbers of children in these two denominations and in some areas very substantially so. In particular many Roman Catholic children who, faced by lack of Church school places to attend state schools, never attend the somewhat unsatisfactory 'Saturday morning session', and even those who do, would under the scheme proposed have twice as many periods of instruction, under better conditions, as at present, and at no cost to the Churches. It is contended however that what is proposed could best be achieved over a period of time not by rigidly set national regulations, but by a process of investigation, contact and development which can best be started at the local level, where local needs can be more clearly perceived and acted upon.

The immense financial burden which is crippling the efforts which the Churches can make in other fields of social welfare, most notable in Youth and social work and Overseas Aid, would be lessened. Indeed it has been a tradition of the philanthropy of the Churches that they have provided that which the State did not provide, until such a time as the State took over, when they moved to new fields of human need — from almshouses and hospitals to schools and colleges for the masses. It is the contention of this article that there is still sufficient need within our society and in its relationship with other societies, for all of the Churches to continue to play a vital and responsible role which is appropriate to the day and age. To do this they will need finance and to gain this they could well reduce their provision of these facilities which can be provided, and often better, by the State.

The essential aim for the future is a school for all children which is truly comprehensive and where people from the community are welcome guests, colleagues, and participants in the life of the school; where the Youth Employment Officer and the Vicar, the Doctor and the Priest, the Educational Psychologist and the Rabbi, and many more too, all feel that thev are at home in our schools and have their different, distinctive but equally important part to play in building a better society for us all. Certainly our country above all others can ill afford an educational deficit in any denomination or community.

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'The purest and most thoughtful minds are those which love colour the most' John Ruskin "Stones of Venice".

'A little group of wise hearts is worth a wilderness of fools' John Ruskin "A crown of Wild Olive".

Has History a Place in the Curriculum?

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The question as to the place of history in the curriculum has caused great concern to many of its teachers. Today, more than ever before, its contribution to the development of a child is being questioned. Indeed, history seems to have been diminishing in importance since the day that Mr E. E. Y. Hales wrote of the distinct possibility of history becoming 'the centre and core of the school curriculum on the Arts side."[1] This attack on one of the traditional curriculum subjects is not as new as we tend to believe. As long ago as 1907, James Bryce, speaking at the first annual meeting of the Historical Association, referred to the fact that 'amid the growing claims of natural science, it is difficult to find a place for the teaching of history.'[2] History seems especially vulnerable to this pressure on the curriculum. Is its future place in danger?

The tendency for half the population of secondary schools children to 'drop' the subject at the end of their third year at school, seems to indicate that its place is anything but secure: this could also indicate that its inclusion as a subject in the curriculum is of very little significance to the child's experience. There are plenty of teachers, especially in schools that pursue this subject to G.C.E. 'O' and 'A' level, who will deny this, and point to the number sitting these examinations in history. The increase in the size of history schools in Universities is also used to verify the point. In a survey taken on 9,677 children, the questions, 'Which subjects do you find useful and interesting' and 'Which subjects do you find useless and boring'? were asked. History stands at the bottom of the table showing the percentage of those who found history 'useful and interesting' and second from the top of that table showing the percentage who found it 'useless and boring'. These reports appear at a time when adult interest in the subject seems to be flourishing, more people are being drawn towards historical novels; historical documentaries; films. The conclusion that we might easily come to, is that there seems to be a link between a latent interest and history as it is seen in the classroom.

It is all well and good for the Association of Assistant Masters to say in their 'The Teaching of History', that the complaint that school history is dull, is 'happily less heard in these days',[3] but there are the strongest of reasons to suppose that in many schools it is excruciatingly, dangerously dull and what is more, of little relevance to the pupils. The danger comes partly from the methods of teaching, partly perhaps from the deplorable belief that only 'able' children can profitably study the subject. This, I stress, is not to say that history has no place in the curriculum. Pundits have too often in recent years, seized on the undeniable fact that history is being badly taught and have twisted this in an attempt to oust it from the curriculum. The subject is attacked, not because it served no purpose, but because its teaching is badly conducted.

It has already been mentioned, that pressure on the curriculum is the main reason for the recent outburst of attack on history as a subject. The creation of new subjects and a demand that they be introduced in the curriculum means that room must be made. The brunt of the attack on this ground seems to have come from the sociologists, who see their subject as more relevant to the child's needs than is history. Their attack has largely been directed along the following lines. They have attempted to draw a sharp dividing line between sociology and history and regarded historical knowledge as concrete and individualistic, in contrast to the abstract, generalised knowledge of the physical sciences. Sociology, it is argued, is concerned with the establishing of general laws, capable of universal application, whereas, history is concerned with single, unique occurences. Sociology, therefore, is more relevant than history. This distinction between generalizing and particularizing disciplines, however, rests on a misunderstanding. It is true that no two historical events are identical; but no two individuals are identical either. As E. H. Carr has recently pointed out, the very use of language commits the historian, like the soci-

ologist, to generalize.[4] The battle of Waterloo was only fought once, but it belongs to the class of 'battles'.

Time is a major dimension of the historian's work. In contrast, it has been argued, that the general propositions of the sociologist are timeless. But the idea that the developmental aspects of social systems can be ignored in the search for structural laws is surely untenable. These then, are basically the arguments used by sociologists to replace history with their special subject and as I have tried to show, neither subject holds a greater importance over the other, both are of value. By all means, include new subjects in the curriculum but not at the cost of losing a subject that is of equal importance.

The question whether or not we can justify the inclusion of history in the curriculum, is often confused by the different meaning that people attach to the term 'history'. As a word, it simply suggests the matter which has been traditionally sanctioned in the school and the mass and volume of this matter discourages us to attempt to see what it really stands for and how it can be taught as to fulfil its mission in the experience of the pupil. But unless the idea that there is a unifying and social direction in education it is a farcical pretence, a subject that bulks as large in the curriculum as does history, must represent a general function in the development of a truly social and intellectualized experience. The discovery of this function must be employed as a criterion for trying and sifting the facts taught and the methods used.

In trying to establish why we have been teaching history, it seems logical to search into the annals of early education and discover why teachers first taught the subject. It is probable that so long as there has been teaching in England, there has been teaching of history. In the middle ages, history was that of world history. It was only in the reign of Elizabeth that it seems to have taken on a national characteristic with the development of a distinctive national sense. The first English history book appeared at that time, 'A History of England from 1460-1509', written for the benefit of Lord Burleigh's sons. The reason for its appearance was to make these young gentlemen 'better men'. History as a means of making 'better men'. Dr Arnold of Rugby was the first to introduce history into the curriculum. Arnold argued the value of history in terms of its moral worth, he pleaded its importance as intellectual training and advocated the inclusion of history as a subject in the public examination of the University of London. This reform movement culminated in the report of the Clarendon (1864) and Taunton (1867-8) commissioners. By this time, history was widely taught and from that time on it rapidly grew in prestige and 'popularity'. This, however, tells us very little as to why we teach history. It nevertheless, indicates that once established, men either realised, or took for granted, that it did serve a purpose.

In the teaching of any subject, our responsibility lies firstly with the pupils and one of the fundamental characteristics of children is their undaunting curiosity. Children, almost instinctively ask questions. Many of these, we know, are asked simply for the sake of asking. The answers are often unimportant to the child. Other questions, however, are of the greatest importance and urgency to him. What child has never asked his parents at some stage or other, where he comes from? Questions such as these, will precede, if not follow, fundamental questions about his direct environment; about his ancestory and so forth. A child is inquisitive about himself, his past and the past lives of others. It is the history teacher's task to satisfy this curiosity and to provide the pupil with some introduction to the achievements of his ancestors and to the contribution of past ages to his life today. This may well be questioned by some sceptics, 'Why teach about the past when the present and future are what matter?' I can do no better in quelling such comments than quoting John Dewey who ascertains that 'knowledge of the past is the key to understanding the present . . . 'History deals with the past, but this past is the history of the present."[5] Past events can not be separated from the living present and still allow that present to retain its full meaning.

One of our main tasks as teachers is to stimulate the imagination of the children and what better material is there available to do this, than that found in history. Plowden emphasises history as a convenient starting point for spontaneous drama, for narative of the 'I was there' kind and for lively art and craft.[6]

Individuals will often deny that there is any enjoyment to be gained from reading history but this, I maintain, is the fault, not of the subject but of the teacher. History well taught will lead to the child's satisfaction and pleasure. I say this without reservation, simply because I have no doubt that children enjoy stories — they are interested in history because they are interested in stories. The pleasure they receive from the Odysseus, Beowulf, the Norse stories, Robin Hood, Chaucer, Arthur, needs not be emphasised. If facts and dates are continuously fed to the child, he will undoubtedly grow to dislike the subject. It is the heroes and villains the fairy tales extreme that the young children look for in legends. Even before they have left the infant school, some children press to know whether a story is really true. Stories that have actually happened have an added force in them. This is surely the moment to present heroic stories, despite the many difficulties that they present, for giving children 'the habitual vision of greatness', which Whitehead believes to be essential to moral development.

As the pupil grows older, the teacher will encourage in him the development of a critical sense, and intellectual values will afford some training in the skills and disciplines of accuracy and selection. The sixth form grappling with complex relationships, evaluating evidence and forming conclusions. History can claim no monopoly in this training, but it will take a firm place with other subjects offering it.

" . . . the study of history gives cohesion and deeper meaning to the rest of the curriculum, providing the context, in time, for all that the pupils see around them."[7] History may indeed play a vital role in the integration of other studies. The history lesson will frequently overlap the boundaries of knowledge which is the concern of subjects such as science, divinity, geography, literature and art. In this sense, history not only occupies a strategic place in the curriculum, but becomes the subject, above all others, giving a cultural education. Here the pupil may find a key to the deeper understanding of many arts and skills and appreciate more fully music, architecture, drama, sculpture, painting and literature. None of these can be fully understood or studied outside their historical context.

Because the teacher of history is concerned with a human study, he must constantly and consciously train his pupils to assess values and to form judgments. The long-term consequencies of what he does will not be the facts that linger, but the attitudes of mind that are formed. Here he is confronted with the 'moral' role of history. Historical topics frequently have certain implicit moral issues and to exclude them from the classroom is impossible. The history teacher will be able to show his pupils that there are shades between black and white. History, more so than any other subject at present on the curriculum, can and I believe should, be used to promote better inter-racial, international understanding. It is not a subject that is to be used, as has been the case, as a vehicle for propaganda, to promote the interest of ones own race or country at the expense of others. History is a major instrument in the striving towards the creation of a 'one world.'

Today, more than ever before, there is ample room in the curriculum for the inclusion of history, despite all attacks from educationalists who try to decry and belittle its advantages as a means of making room for newer subjects. To revert to the original discussion, it appears that the recent controversy is not as to whether history shall be included or excluded from the curriculum, but should history continue to be taught as history or should its name be changed and its subject matter be included in another framework — should history be taught as such, or should it merely be integrated in other subjects? There is clearly room for it to be used alongside other subjects; but because history can and should be introduced in the study of other subjects, does

this mean that 'pure' history is in danger of losing its importance? Perhaps history, along with other related disciplines, should be amalgamated and taught as social science? Several years ago, W. H. Burston of the London Institute of Education criticised social studies on the point that if a number of subjects were amalgamated to the overall pattern of the integrated syllabus, which, in its turn, would be in danger of lacking any coherent thought-structure at all. The philosopher's position is that the traditional disciplines represent unique perspectives to understanding, which we can discard only at the peril of impoverishing our educational programme. On the other hand, it is not difficult to appreciate the advantages that the replacing of history with social science would offer. The study of modern society would be followed and therefore a higher interest value and a more direct utility would follow, since modern historic trends to be taught as to give the old methods merely a new tint. It would again give an opportunity for an interdisciplinery approach to study and the destruction of artificial subject barriers, assuming that this is something to be desired!

Both subject and topic approaches have their limitations, the subject approach tends to be too divorced from reality for the non-academic child, while the topic approach fails to provide a systematic training in any given role of thinking. Bruner, in the 'Process of Education' argues the philosophers case for identifiable disciplines. His case is that a student should be able to make the most effective use of every stage of learning by being able to relate earlier to later material. This can best be achieved by constructing a syllabus in any subject in a spiral fashion, so that the basic elements of the subject are repeated at advanced levels of sophistication as the student progresses through his course. In this way, data are more easily assimulated because they are perceived not in isolation but as comprehensive parts of a conceptual pattern — an example of this, given by Bruner will help clarify the point.

'Once the idea that a country must trade to survive has been grasped by a child, then such a presumably special phenomenon as the triangular trade of the American Colonies becomes altogether simpler to understand as something more than commerce in molasses, sugar cane, rum, and slaves, in an atmosphere of violation of British trade regulations.'[8] Bruner argues that a 'spiral structure' of this nature is necessary in the form of a curriculum. If this is the case, integrated courses can not be tolerated, as different subjects have different structures. Entwistle and Lee[9] write against any attempt to force disperate traditional subjects, such as English, Religious Education, Literature and Geography, into uneasy partnership, but rather that the essential principles of the true social sciences, such as sociology, economics, politics, should be identified and organised into an inter-related (though integrated), curriculum. Such is the argument that history finds itself at the centre of today — NOT SHOULD history be kept in the school curriculum, but HOW should it be incorporated? History DOES have its place, today more than ever before.

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On from Pulborough

Mary Stapleton reports on the Working Party

Towards the end of the Pulborough Conference in August 1969, members of the group concerned with the environment wrote a statement representing the views of the working party. We should like to remind New Era readers of that statement:

'Since one of the chief needs of all human beings is for deeper acceptance one of another, we aim towards that kind of education which takes recognition of the findings concerning individual and group behaviour. We see education as a continuing, life-long process in which children and adults are interdependent. At the same time as we stress the importance of children coming into closer contact with the community around them, we believe strongly in the value of small groups of individuals meeting continually and growing in the understanding of each other.'

'We no longer believe that the schooling system is the most appropriate way of educating children. We must examine more carefully the life outside the schools. Looking at existing environments as a learning-habitat for both children and adults, we find many facilities not yet fully recognised as potential learning resources. Many community-owned resources are under-used either during the day-time or after 'school hours'. Industrial resources, such as computors, are likely to be off-line after a factory's working hours. Amateur societies provide obvious sources of expertise. This, along with the environment beyond the immediate neighbourhood, adds up to something greater than the resources already existing in individual schools. Have we not neglected the natural resources of our environment, and ignored the potentialities of people and institutions existing in our midst? A child does not have to go to school to differentiate between thunder and sonic boom. A life long interest in moths is likely to spring from contact with a keen lepidopterist. This person may be a neighbour, or a senior citizen living down the next road.'

'Years ago schools were the only generally available sources of learning, but today these resources are far more abundant, and there are already more people outside schools involved in caring for children. We are wasting these facilities, many of which are free.'

'In providing for this kind of education through real experience, there will need to be a move towards self-initiated, self assessed learning. We envisage children working through small group-bases with counsellor-tutors, utilising the community resources. Teaching is no longer confined to school buildings, and need no longer be tied to a school base.'

Having stated our aims we decided that, if the statement were to be of value, the ideas must be seen to be practicable, and that we must therefore turn to action. We began by distributing copies of the statement to people who were already known to be working in an enlightened and enterprising way with adults or children in the community. Some of these people joined us when we called a meeting at Kingston Bagpuize, Berkshire, in the Autumn. In the sunny courtyard of Rimes Yard, the home of Drs Edgar and Margaret Myers who were giving us hospitality that weekend, many conversations took place which led us to a decision to illustrate the working party statement in the following ways:

1 by a publication
2 by contacting a local authority with a view to discussing pilot schemes
3 by an exhibition which could form part of our contribution to Education Year, 1970.

Negotiations are now in progress on all three fronts, and a report on the first two items should appear soon in the New Era. Meanwhile we can report on the exhibition which was assembled for the first time in the Kinsway Corridor at Goldsmiths' College, University of London, in March when members of the working party took part in a conference arranged by the Education Department in conjunction with the Goldsmiths' College Association.

The theme of the Goldsmiths' Conference was 'Growing together — towards AD 2070'. We

kept this theme in mind, but thought it more important to show signs of growth happening near at hand in 1970 rather than to try to predict a more distant time. We therefore entitled our Exhibition 'The Future is Now' and gave a central place in the corridor to the five children whom Donald Pavey had brought along from his Junior Arts and Science Centre.[1] They helped to show what could be achieved by children of various ages who were allowed to work under the skilled guidance of an adult, with tools and materials not yet available to them in school. The success of these Junior Arts and Science Centres has made many of us ask again why these activities were only accessible to children at weekends? We indicated in the Exhibition that 'Growing together' might mean a crossing of the Friday Saturday barrier still imposed on many children by their schools.

In the exhibition we gave examples of ways in which time and space barriers in Education were already being crossed. We showed Dr Royston Lambert's plans for Dartington Hall School[2], in which he was suggesting the extensions of the school-base beyond the boundaries of Dartington, so that the pupils could experience work in a city or life in a comprehensive school, rather than being 'cloistered' during the years of secondary-stage schooling. Allied to these schemes were the diagrams which showed the Parkway Program, Philadelphia[3], a form of non-school in which the pupils worked from town bases such as libraries or garages.

Those who came to our meeting in January[4] will have had a preview of two other exhibits, one being 'Action Space'—a movement initiated by the sculptor, Ken Turner[5] — 'a voluntary organisation of artists concerned with creative play, education and the visual arts'. Their photographs and slides showed not only ways in which artists, students and children had worked together but also ways in which the adults had helped to cross the 'territory barriers' which had previously made play-spaces inaccessible to children.

Since January David Lacey, Richard Mottram and Julie Olsen have been pressing on with their plans for a community-based education centre and are looking for sponsors.[6] At the conference they gave to visitors the following outline of their proposals:

'There is an opportunity to put into practice some ideas about community-based education, through providing a central facility where professional advice and teaching can be obtained free from artists and craftsmen working on a commercial basis.'

'The inner London Education Authority intends to rebuild Emmanuel Primary School in Mill Lane, West Hampstead, on a site on the opposite side of the road, occupied at the moment by a large G.P.O. garage — about 3,000 sq. metres (33,000 sq. ft.) of covered area. This would involve clearing the site of the structure and replacing it with an ordinary school block of about 1,400 sq. metres (15,000 sq. ft.) for about £56,000. This money could be used to service the existing building and turn it into a useful amenity for the community rather than a series of teaching spaces and an asphalted playground. It seems an incredible waste of resource to pull down a sound structure and an exciting building.'

'What we envisage is a place where light industry (printing, car repair, electrical, woodwork . . .), craftsmen and artists (potters, actors, photographers . . .) can work independently or in co-operation. It would be a commercial swap of rent free, serviced workshops and sales outlets, in return for spending time with people interested in their work, giving professional advice and sometimes working on projects. At the same time the centre would be a base for tutor-counsellors helping and advising children (and adults) to follow up their interests. There would be a large range of community services based at the centre, e.g. public workshops, advice bureau, record and film library, evening institute classes, discotheque, coffee bar, pin-up boards, but especially people. By day it would act as a market-place and a learning environment for the children, in the evening the professional advice would become available for adults as they come to use the facilities and follow up their interests and hobbies. The

weekends could provide a time for more broadly based group projects and anything could happen! The building would become the resource centre for the area and may even prove to be a viable alternative to the pub, telly and bingo hall.'

The extension of 'learning bases' was a recurring theme in the exhibition, and was illustrated in yet another way by Robin Webster[7], an architect concerned with the problem of bringing children safely and easily to community resources, then enabling them to work on the site for long periods of time. He showed his plans for the conversion of double-decker London Transport buses to meet this need of an 'instant classroom' fitted out according to the work being undertaken at the time. He also suggested 'do-it-yourself', inflatable classrooms which could be used in conjunction with the buses.

It is our intention that part of this Exhibition should eventually become mobile, and that we should add to it further examples of good interaction between living and learning, between school and community. We hope to develop some form of feed-back, and to discuss the work with more people outside the teaching profession. We have already been given an opportunity to do this by taking part in the Devon Show in May[8].

In looking at the changing shape of education we see a growing need for new community responsibility concerning the teaching, control and care of children, and a need to rethink the time and work some of us apportion to life inside and outside institutions.

Since last August at Pulborough we have had to work in small, fluctuating groups. By July, 1970 we hope to be able to report back to a larger group again at York University[9]. Here we should like to meet again those people who have supported us from a distance — including some who have moved overseas — and should welcome criticism, ideas and information from people joining us for the first time. Since we have been working as an inter-professional group we have felt a growing need to widen the range of professions represented at our meetings. In thinking of increased mobility for children, for instance, we have to pay greater attention to matters of safety, and should appreciate guidance by those who are expert in Law. Views of parents and children are, of course, essential to our work.

It is our belief that structures are a necessary part of any system of Education, but that many of our institutional systems have become rigid and therefore lifeless or useless. We realise that we need to look for ways of making structures more flexible and permeable, so that whilst learning, children and adults can, at the same time, 'live and move and have their being'.

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1 Pavey, Donald, 'Junior Explorers in Art and Science' Athene, Journal of the Society for Education through Art, Vol. 13, No. 2, 1968.
Further particulars of Junior Arts and Science Centres from JASC House, 30 Wayside, London S.W.14.
2 Lambert, Dr Royston, 'What Dartington will do' New Society (30.1.69)
3 Parkway Program, 'A school without walls' Times Educational Supplement (27.2.70)
4 World Education Fellowship (English Section) Annual General Meeting, London (2.1.70)
5 Turner, Ken, 'Action Space' — Studios at Space Ltd, St. Katharine's Dock, London E.1.
6 Lacey, David and Mottram, Richard — Students of architecture at the School of Environmental Studies, University College, Gower Street, London W.C.1. (Further copies of the outline proposals may be obtained from them at this address)
7 Webster, Robin, Architect, School of Environmental Studies, University College, Gower Street, London W.C.1. (Further particulars concerning the design of the buses are obtainable from him)
8 Devon County Show, 21st to 23rd May 1970, Whipton, Exeter (Devon).
9 World Education Fellowship (English Section) Conference.

AMERICAN wishes to teach in English 'family grouping' infant school for a year or two. Has 18 years of primary, college and university teaching experience in United States as well as 'qualified teacher' status with Department of Education and Science (temporary reference number RP 335c).

If interested,
please write giving particulars to:

Dr Jerome F. Storm
432 South 21 Street
Richmond, Indiana 47374
U.S.A.

Margaret Rasmussen writes about the following article:

Helen Heffernan, former Chief, Bureau of Elementary Education, California State Department of Education, Sacramento, is currently lecturing througout the United States. Her interests are many: early childhood and elementary education, parents as 'full partners in education of their children'; curriculum areas such as, language arts, social studies, science (particularly conservation), health and the arts. Helen Heffernan gives wise council to many educational organizations and continues to write outstanding professional books. In 1966 an honor bestowed by her colleagues was the purchase and the dedication of a Northern California redwood tree grove in the Prairie Creek Redwoods State Park, now known as the 'Helen Heffernan Honor Grove'. The enduring strength and the timeless beauty of the redwoods is the priceless gift for future generations as is the influence of Helen Heffernan who as 'a teacher affects eternity.'

The following is a speech by Helen Heffernan repeated by popular demand to audiences at conferences of educational organizations in Texas. She has added the Bibliography and given THE NEW ERA permission to print.

"There Was a Child Went Forth"

Helen Heffernan

Many people are investing important, productive years of their lives in the service of young children. This dedication reveals a commitment to the belief, shared by thousands of others working in the fields of medicine, social work and education, that the early years of life are overwhelmingly significant if a child is to attain his full potential.

Benjamin S. Bloom in his book, **Stability and Change in Human Characteristics,** (4) supports with a compilation of convincing research data the statement that 'the most rapid period of development appears to be the first five years of life.' He states further that the studies of vocabulary development suggest that about one-third of this development has occurred by the time the child has entered school and 'by age 9 at least 50 per cent of the general achievement pattern at age 18 has been developed.' Many other research workers have established the importance of the early years of life for all kinds of development. (5, 9, 10, 15, 23).

No society can afford to neglect these years. The history of American education for the twentieth century will record the great national awakening to the importance of young children and the upsurge of concern for their health, welfare and education. The Head Start program received much stimulus from studies of the effect of a deprived early environment on children's learning. (9, 10, 23) The stated purposes of Head Start were to improve health, to help children to develop socially and emotionally by encouraging self-confidence, self-expression, self-discipline, and curiosity; to improve the child's ability to think; to strengthen community ties and to coordinate community efforts to solve problems in cooperation with the people involved. Rarely, if ever, has any educational program generated greater public interest. These were goals worth striving to attain.

Our current problem is to keep this enthusiasm alive in every community and to encourage continual expression of the widespread conviction of the people generally that young children must have the fullest protection and most forward-looking services that an intelligent society can devise. If the leadership of the United States Congress and in the legislative bodies of the various states **puts first things first,** then programs for nursery-school and kindergarten-age children suited to their needs will become accessible early in the seventies to **all** the children in the United States.

We are challenged today to nurture and educate young children like the poem: 'There Was a Child Went Forth' written more than a hundred years ago by the great American philosopher-poet, Walt Whitman. The poem is well known to all teachers but my subsequent references to it may be more meaning-

ful if we recall it together.

There Was a Child Went Forth[1]

There was a child went forth every day,
And the first object he look'd upon, that object he became,
And that object became part of him for the day or a certain part of the day
Or for many years or stretching cycles of years.

The early lilacs became part of this child,
And grass and white and red morning-glories, and white and red clover, and the song of the phoebe-bird,
And the Third-month lambs and the sow's pink-faint litter, and the mare's foal and cow's calf,
And the noisy brook of the barnyard or by the mire of the pondside.
And the fish suspending themselves so curiously below there, and the beautiful curious liquid.
And the water-plants with their graceful flat heads, all became part of him.

The field-sprouts of Fourth-month and Fifth-month became part of him,
Winter-grain sprouts and those of the light-yellow corn, and the esculent roots of the garden,
And the apple-trees cover'd with blossoms and the fruit afterward, and wood-berries, and the commonest weeds by the road,
And the old drunkard staggering home from the outhouse of the tavern whence he had lately risen,
And the schoolmistress that pass'd on her way to the school,
And the friendly boys that pass'd, and the quarrelsome boys,
And the tidy and fresh-cheek'd girls, and barefoot Negro boy and girl,
And all the changes of city and country wherever he went.

His own parents, he that had father'd him and she that had conceived him in her womb and birth'd him,
They gave this child more of themselves than that,
They gave him afterward every day, they became part of him.

The mother at home quietly placing the dishes on the supper-table,
The mother with mild words, clean her cap and gown, a wholesome odor falling off her person and clothes as she walks by,
The father, strong, self-sufficient, manly, mean, anger'd, unjust,
The blow, the quick loud word, the tight bargain, the crafty lure,
The family usages, the language, the company, the furniture, the yearning and swelling heart,
Affection that will not be gainsay'd, the sense of what is real, the thought if after all it should prove unreal,
The doubts of day-time and the doubts of night-time, the curious whether and how,
Whether that which appears so is so, or is it all flashes and specks?
Men and women crowding fast in the streets, if they are not flashes and specks what are they?
The streets themselves and the facadés of houses, and goods in the windows
Vehicles, teams, the heavy-plank'd wharves, the huge crossing at the ferries,
The village on the highland seen from afar at sunset, the river between.
Shadows, aureola and mist, the light falling on roofs and gables of white or brown two miles off,
The schooner near by sleepily dropping down the tide, the little boat slack-tow'd astern,
The hurrying tumbling waves, quick-broken crests, slapping,
The strata of color'd clouds, the long bar of maroon-tint away solitary by itself. the spread of purity it lies motionless in,
The horizon's edge, the flying sea-crow, the fragrance of salt marsh and shore mud,
These become part of that child who went forth every day.

The kind of child who goes forth depends upon the kind of home in which he has developed and the quality of parental care and guidance he has received. He is already

a 'part of all that he has met' before he encounters the social group in nursery school or kindergarten.

Influence of Parents

The genetic structure of the child is his direct inheritance from his parents and determines his physical and sensory assets and liabilities. His genetic inheritance determines his level of energy, vigor and alertness. His parents make the decisions concerning the prenatal care of his mother. They determine the diet and the health practices used with the child. Whether improper physical care of the young child is due to parental neglect and indifference, to the substandard economic resources of the family, or to ignorance, the child's health and physical well-being will determine what he perceives in his world as he goes forth and what experiences he will be ready to make a part of himself.

We would all agree that the care of babies starts with the care of mothers. But the record shows us sadly deficient.[2] In 1950, for example, the United States ranked sixth in deaths of babies per thousand births. According to WHO statistics for 1961, we had slid down to something like fifteenth place. The consequence of poor or inadequate prenatal care are reflected not only in infant deaths but also in those children who survive with preventable defects — defects which may cause them to live miserable half lives. A high proportion of the two million mentally retarded children in the United States are born in poor families. Many of these defects could have been forestalled by simple medication and treatment before birth. Most authorities agree that retardation could be cut in half if we applied what we already know about familiar hazards as faulty metabolism and German measles.

Five hospitals in the city of Boston cooperated in making comprehensive diagnostic workups on 1,442 preschool children aged four to six enrolled in the Head Start Program.[3] Over 31 percent of the children four to five years old exhibited major physical defects; nearly 25 percent had some sort of psychological difficulty, ranging from serious behaviour problems to actual psychoses.

In the autobiographical poem, the young Walt Whitman of more than a hundred years ago went forth with vigor, alertness and a sense of adventure into the world of nature. In a world of early lilacs, of white and red morning glories and clover, he listened to the song of the phoebe. He saw new lambs and piglets and foals and calves and listened to the noisy brood of the barnyard or by the pond side. Like all children, he was attracted to the beautiful, curious liquid that held fish and water plants suspended. Winter grain sprouts and light yellow corn and apple trees and wood-berries and the common weeds by the road were the things he looked upon and which became part of him for a day, for many years, or stretching cycles of years.

In all of his enumeration of lovely things, we are aware of the influence of young Whitam's mother and father. They were parents who not only gave him life but 'gave this child more of themselves than that, and gave him afterward every day.' Truly, his parents were this child's first teachers. They helped him to sense the wonders of his world and to call each by its name so that he had the verbal symbols to recall his experiences and make them a part of himself.

Whitman pictured his parents well.

> The mother at home quietly placing the dishes on the supper table,
> The mother with mild words, clean her cap and gown, a wholesome odor falling off her person and clothes as she passed by.
> The father, strong, self-sufficient, manly, mean, anger'd, unjust
> The blow, the quick loud word, the tight bargain, the crafty lure.

He had no illusions about their virtues or their faults; they were human beings. But each had 'the yearning and swelling heart, affection that will not be gainsay'd.' There was no lack of what we have come to call **nurturance** in this parent-child relationship.

His parents are again reflected as we see the

young Whitman free to explore his world and to make sensory contact with it. Our psychologists tell us that experience is important to the development of cognition. With what economy of words, Whitman shares his boyhood experiences with the friendly boys and the quarrelsome ones, the tidy fresh-cheek'd girls, men and women crowding fast in the streets, the streets themselves and the facades of houses, vehicles, teams, heavy-plank'd wharves, the highland village seen from afar at sunset, the river, shadows and mist, schooners, hurrying, tumbling waves, colored clouds, the horizon's edge, the fragrance of the salt marsh.

With his parents' strength to lean on, their steadfast affection, and the values lived by in their home and exemplified by their lives, their child went forth. These parents had faith — consciously or unconsciously — that they could depend on the natural drives to learning.

Although behavioral scientists in our country have given increasing attention to child-rearing practices throughout our century, their various theoretical formulations have tended to confuse rather than enlighten parents. Early prescriptions were directed toward avoiding 'spoiling the child.' This theory appealed to sadistic impulses and children were frequently punished severely for not knowing what their parents had not provided opportunity for them to learn. This treatment of young children tragically persisits in our culture and persists to such an extent that we have actually coined a term to describe its extreme manifestation — 'the battered child syndrome.'

Later, parents were advised to follow procedures designed to avoid frustration and submissive behavior on the part of the child. And so, certain parents feared to assist themselves as the persons legally and morally responsible for the child's behavior; again the child was not taught the necessity of self-control or the limits imposed upon individuals for socially-acceptable behavior. Parents were warned against child-rearing practices that over-stimulated, restricted, or expressed disapproval or hostility toward the child. Fearing to express hostility, parents frequently did not let their child see how they reacted to behaviour which they considered unpleasant, unfair, insensitive, or even cruel. And so, a child had no opportunity to learn the parent's values. One psychological theory emphasized the **control** function of parents while another emphasized the **nurturance** function.

An interesting study carried on at the Institute of Human Development, University of California, Berkeley, and reported in the issue of **Children** for November-December, 1965 (4) suggests

> . . . that a combination of parental love and discipline produces a self-reliant, bouyant, self-controlled child . . . or stated another way

> . . . the lack of parental discipline may make a child insecure about parental love and conversely that an unloving parent is not likely to successfully control her child's behavior.

The research involved a series of observations of child-rearing practices experienced by three types of children selected from 110 normal, preschool children described as follows:

1. Children who were self-reliant, self-controlled, buoyant and affiliative.

2. Children who were discontented, withdrawn and distrustful.

3. Children who had little self-control and self-reliance and tended to retreat from novel experiences.

The purpose of the study was to ascertain whether child-rearing practices observed in the homes of these children could account for the development of these different patterns. The study assumed

> . . . that the physical, cognitive and moral development of preschool children is largely

a consequence of parental attitudes and child-rearing practices.

Since the number of children involved in such a time-consuming study and in one restricted to the three patterns described was of necessity small, no firm causal conclusions were drawn but

> . . . it appears from the data that parental control and nurturance interact collaboratively and that a pattern of parental behavior high in control and high in nurturance is more likely to produce self-assertive, self-confident, and self-controlled behavior in young children than any other pattern of parental behaviour.

It appeared further that the discontented, withdrawn and distrustful children of the second pattern had been 'reasoned with less' suffered 'severer penalties and more disapproval' and parents had been 'more coercive in their use of power.' A lack of communication between parent and child was also noted. These parents were rated as low in nurturance of their children and authoritarian in their behaviour toward their children.

The third group — low in self-control and self-reliance and resistant to new experiences but not discontented and socially withdrawn seem to have parents who were markedly low in control and high in nurturance.

The study offers a reasonable thesis in child-rearing practices that

> . . . the approach designated as authoritative love integrates the two central parental functions of control and nurturance, so that these functions are perceived by parent and child as unified manifestations of parental love.

Implications of Parental Behaviour for Teachers

If we accept the basic assumption of the Berkeley study 'that the physical, cognitive and moral development of preschool children is largely a consequence of parental attitudes and child-rearing practices' then highly significant implications can be drawn from the child's relationship with his parents before he goes forth from his home to nursery school or kindergarten and becomes the day-by-day concern of other adults.

First, no one should expect the school to be able to repeal the law of human variability. Each child who goes forth is going to differ from every other child because the possible combination of genes in human beings remains illimitable.

Somehow the idea has found credence that the genetic structure of the child is relatively unimportant; that we can overcome heredity by providing many stimulating first-hand experiences and a rich environment with which the child can interact. No defensible research justifies such a sweeping interpretation. Actually, such claims are not made by reputable research workers themselves but rather by enthusiastic zealots who draw conclusions not supported by the research. The effect of such interpretations may be discouraging and frustrating to teachers who seek in vain to achieve the miraculous results which preschool education is expected to bring about.

To be sure, loving care and intelligent guidance of young children in a favorable learning environment are conducive to wholesome growth and development but they cannot reverse certain genetic disasters . . . no genius will ever flower from mentally sub-normal parents. Less disappointment will result to everyone if we face that fact that heredity does impose limits.

Likewise the early nurture of the child imposes serious problems in his subsequent development. The classic example that comes to mind is the case of the five-year-old child described by Virginia Axline in **Dibs . . . In Search of Self.** No preschool teacher should miss reading this exciting book. As a people we have little patience with the realistic. We can 'put a man on the moon' so why can't we reverse the effects of heredity and early nurture by developing some gadget or gimmick. And so, teachers of young children

are among the most pressurized people in our society today by demands to teach young children skills for which the children are not ready and for which they have no need at the present stage in their maturation.

The **second** implication is that teachers should be aware of the way in which the growing child identifies with his own environment as was so vividly revealed in Walt Whitman's poem. If his environment has been meager — physically or socially — her task is one of sympathetic understanding and determination to put all of the resources at her command in compensating for the early deprivation.

The teacher of young children must have the faith that Walt Whitman's parents had in the natural drives to learning. All children want to learn; to grow up; to become part of their world. And so the teacher asks herself; Am I taking these natural drives to learning into account every day as I guide these children? Am I making full use of the child's drive to be physically active? Am I bringing into the environment things to arouse his curiosity and am I helping him to satisfy that curiosity? Am I helping the child to use his natural drive to manipulate and construct? Do I make opportunity for him to satisfy the drive to share and communicate? Am I helping him to recreate the adult life of his neighbourhood so he can get inside the experience and know how it feels? Am I providing many opportunities for the child to use his inner drive to express himself creatively in words, art, music and bodily rhythm?

If learning experiences for young children can be organized for maximum utilization of these natural drives, children will learn. We will not have to use 'pressure cooker' methods as advocated by one of our contemporaries nor will we have to shout as loudly as possible at children to make them learn as advocated by others who are riding another bandwagon in educational circles.

Third, the child who goes forth into nursery school or kindergarten has already experienced four or five years of the child-rearing practices employed in his home. The teacher may greet a happy, self-confident, and reasonably self-controlled child who thinks well of himself or a child whose social and emotional characteristics represent the complete antithesis — a child who is fearful, withdrawn, discontented, distrustful, and who feels no responsibility for his behavior.

Every teacher would wish that the child who goes forth to his first preschool encounter with other children and adults were a child who has lived in an environment of love; a child who has received the love and expressed love. Every teacher would wish that the child had developed a sense of trust, a reasonable degree of independence and strong feelings of his personal worth. But the range of possibilities is wide. The teacher may recognize the need to help the child to become self-confident, to assume more responsibility for his own behaviour, to become a happier, more independent person. But at the same time the teacher recognizes the futility of her efforts for a few hours a day unless the parents become full partners in the enterprise and develop more positive attitudes toward the child.

The school for young children will never achieve its goal unless it can involve fathers and mothers as full partners in the education of their children. In a recent meeting, a panel of parents reacted to my presentation in which I had mentioned how much parents could do about the sensory training, the broadening of experience, and the creation of attitudes before their child ever came to school. One of the panel members, Mrs D., commented as follows: 'I was brought up in a home where my father and mother didn't know about babysitters; my mother saw her role as taking care of her children and so when I began my family I naturally followed her example. Whereever I went, I took my children with me (she has four). We reduced much of the family living to routine so we had more time for things that were important. I let the children help with the cooking — when we make rolls all five of us work at it, even the least one. I think many parents are actually afraid of their children but we do everything with them

and have really come to know, appreciate and work with the uniqueness of each child. We watch programs on TV together and decide which ones are valuable and which are a waste of our valuable time. My husband and I watch carefully for announcements to see that we do not miss any important special program but we rule out firmly in family council the ones we consider of less value. We try to have the children, meet, if possible, or at least see face-to-face important people who come to our town. My husband took time off from work recently so the boys could meet a famous baseball player who was speaking at a local service club. While the children were still babies in arms we read stories and recited poetry to them every day. We had a student from Ethiopia as a guest in our home during her last two years in high school. Our children are as eager about her letters from college as they would be if she were an older sister.'

Our society must initiate the programs that will make the type of home Mrs D. reflected a pattern for American family life. This will involve courses in human growth and development centers in which students may participate in preparation for the most important function of an adult — that of being a parent.

Cleavage in Philosophy

Prior to the beginning of the federally supported Head Start program a trend had appeared throughout the country to push academic learning to lower developmental levels. Kindergarten teachers were pressured to teach reading to the five-year-olds. In some nursery schools 'the academic grind at three' (16) was on, private nursery schools were reacting to parental pressure to include reading and mathematics in the curriculum. Widely read women's magazines were urging parents 'to teach their babies how to read.'

Parents feared that their children might not be successful in climbing the socio-economic ladder unless they began formal learning early. These parents had heard the message that there is 'no room at the bottom' in our society and they were eager to accelerate their child's development so he would be able to compete successfully for jobs and for a social position that would guarantee him a place at the top.

The very term 'Head Start' implied that the child was in a race (16). People who knew little about the growth and development of young children and who had experienced a formal educational program themselves equated **learning the skills** with **education.** They imposed what they associated with programs for beginners in elementary school on younger children regardless of their readiness or need for this particular learning.

Whatever we do for children should be the best we know for them. Our goal should be that they 'go willingly to school,' enjoying it whole-heartedly. Recently, I was waiting for an appointment in the office of an oculist. A woman of the young grandmother generation came in. She seemed well acquainted with the receptionist and the nurse. In response to the nurse's inquiry about the woman's daughter, the young grandmother launched into an enthusiastic story about Jeffery, the three-year-old grandson. She said:

"Jeffrey was given a partial scholarship to go to a new nursery school that was just being set up. I paid the difference in tuition." The nurse made satisfactory murmurs of surprise and pleasure. 'But,' continued Jeffrey's grandmother, "he hated it. He fought every morning against going. Finally, we looked around and found another nursery school — it was really more like a school camp than a school. So many things were going on outdoors. They even taught him to swim! He had a 'ball.' "

I rejoiced in Jeffrey's success in extricating himself from an environment which was not developmental for him. Even at three he had developed what Lois Barclay Murphy calls 'coping power'. All the joy, the deep delight he could find in the adventure of education might so easily have been destroyed had he not had the wisdom — even at three — to know that that nursery school was not the place for him. He might have become Shakes-

peare's (As You Like It)

> . . . whining school-boy with
> his satchel
> And shining morning face creeping
> like a snail
> Unwillingly to school

The question is not 'CAN we teach specific skills of reading and mathematics to children at an early age?' The answer to this question is 'yes, to certain children, and depending somewhat upon what we mean by reading and mathematics.' The real question is 'SHOUD we teach these skills as early as possible?' Here we must make a philosophical decision and answer another question: 'Is this the most important learning for the threes, fours, and fives?'

Dr. Milton J. E. Senn (32), until his retirement in 1966 as Professor of Pediatrics and Psychiatry and Director of Yale's Child Study Center, speaks of these different goals in these terms:

There is today a cleavage between educators of young children who favor educational practices based on concepts of the child in relation to his whole emotional-cognitive development and those who favor practice aimed only at developing certain measurable skills defined as 'intelligence.'

In my opinion the sane perspective on the hierarchy of values has been turned on end. We are now urged to believe that highly structured, mechanical and rigid practices in teaching are superior to those that are flexible, child-experience oriented, and focused on human relationships. We are being led to expect both immediate and lasting results from programs aimed at speeding up the learning in the youngest minds. Emphasis on the intelligence quotient as the measure of achievement continues despite strong evidence that questions the validity of this practice.

A curriculum for three- to six-year-olds based on concept development through the child's firsthand experience with his social and natural environment creates the indispensable foundation or readiness for later learning which has meanng for the child. A curriculum based on such experiences develops in the child a favorable attitude toward learning which contributes to his success in later learning.

If nursery school and kindergarten can provide an environment where the child can discover things for himself through use of materials and participate in experiences suited to his developmental level, we have the best chance of helping him achieve his potentialities and express his innate creativity. If we think of education as imposed tasks, we risk the loss of the child's ability to become a self-directed person. We teach him that the way to adult approval is through conforming to what is asked of him. We teach him that we do not value his discoveries, his ability to solve problems, to express his initiative, his imagination, his uniqueness.

Nursery school and kindergarten also 'become part of that child who went forth every day, who now goes and will always go forth every day'. In the words of **The Prophet** it is our role to 'see that no one has gone his way with empty hands, for the master spirit of the earth shall not sleep peacefully . . . until the needs of the least . . . are satisfied.'

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The Marshall Cavendish Learning System

Publisher Marshall Cavendish Books Ltd., 1969

BIOLOGY B 1, 2, 3, 4

B1 Where Life Begins
This book distinguishes in the first place between living and inanimate objects and goes on to say what is necessary for life to continue. It gives the differences between animal and plant cells and in the last chapter it tells how food supplies are renewed and shows that a balanced cell activity is needed to maintain life.

B2 Staying Alive
The first chapter is interesting as it gives a few theories as to how life began. In later chapters it explains the use of proteins and how living things use these for energy (it gives the glow of a glow-worm and contraction of striped muscles as examples). There is an informative chapter on the use of suitable mouthparts and teeth, beaks and tentacles are discussed, and there is great detail on how the bee sucks.

B3 The Life of Plants
'Leaves take 40,000 million tons of CO_2 from the air each year'. The main stem of the book is to show how plants use the available material in nature to stay alive and be able to produce more of the species.

B4 The Life of Animals
This book is very much linked with the 'Life of Plants' and shows how animals survive in nature. Throughout, the book is linked by examples to human life and shows how nature fits bodily shapes to basic needs and links this to life on land and in the sea.

These first four books in the series published so far are written in a simple easily understandable mode, fully illustrated by clear helpful diagrams. A very useful set of text books for a biology student, teacher or anyone interested in the subject.

MAN AND MEDICINE M 2, 3, 4

M2 From Baby to Childhood
This book tells of a child's first steps in a new world, how these are overcome and that with care and attention, he will be able to grow easily into childhood. There is a chapter on diseases in childhood and how these may gradually be eliminated. The final chapters deal with the family and the child within this society and the relationships formed. These also include other Cultures and thereby we are introduced to other values.

M3 From Child to Adolescent
The first chapter deals with tests of human intelligence and shows that a great deal of a child's success is by trial and error. This leads to the learning game and a child's world at school and through a wider experience he is able to reach out to maturity. A child soon comes out of childhood and adolescence is dealt with in reasonable detail. It is shown that a balance can be struck in parent/child friction.

M4 Heredity. Family and Society
The key to inheritance is explained in the first chapter and then it goes on to explain about blood groups. Problems of infertility are discussed and various methods of birth control. There is an interesting chapter on 'Rituals of Childbirth' which includes primitive customs and taboos as well as modern techniques. The final chapter talks about the child in society, seeing the world through a child's eye.

These three books in the series are interesting, most informative with clear diagrams. Useful as text books, or as reading for children and adults alike.

Helen Griffiths.

NOTE

The whole of this series is a breakthrough in publishing. The publicity saying 'Do you know as much as today's children?' is a refreshing and timely approach. Other volumes will be reviewed in due course. We have tried them out on a great many youngsters and they get pounced on, borrowed and always they are read.

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Who's Who?

JONATHAN TATLOW ('Attitudes')

Biographical Notes

Born 1939

1953-57 St. John's School, Leatherhead (science specialist).

1960-63 Kingston School of Art (Graphic Design dept.).

1963-65 'The Connoisseur' (Antiques and Works of Art magazine).

1965-68 Freelance, (Commercial art, antique restoration, teaching, etc.).

1968 Gipsy Hill College of Education (Main subject, Art).

Two children (aged 7 and 3), a brown dog and a black rabbit. Plan to get a canary and some fan-tailed pigeons.
The future: Painting, teaching, model restoration etc. Work in America for 1 or 2 years. Finish book about the 'real' King Arthur.

JOHN DWYFOR DAVIES

1958-63 Attended Emmanuel Grammar School Swansea.

1963-65 Ystalyfera Grammar School.

1965-69 Redland College of Education, Bristol where he gained Certificate of Education, and a B.Ed. degree with Honours.

September 1969 teaching at Corsham Secondary School for Boys. He teaches in the Remedial Department.

'Attitudes', Introduction

Following a student-organized questionnaire concerning their Education Department, a one-day forum took place at Gipsy Hill College of Education in March this year.

Six Students spoke first and their arguments were then discussed by the audience of staff and students in seminar groups. The staff then replied to the main points with continued participation by the audience.

Printed below is the text of the contribution from a member (not representative) of the Mature Students Outpost at Guildford.

Much credit is due to the students and staff who made the forum possible — the author hopes the first shall not be the last.

Attitudes

Jonathan Tatlow

We have asked for, and been given, the freedom to air our grievances about this college, and in particular (because of the shortage of time), the Education Department. But freedom imposes its own responsibilities: supposedly, in a democracy everybody is equal (whatever that may mean). One thing that it does mean here and now, is that we six students are not simply questioning the college, neither are the six of us questioning **you** (the students), but WE are questioning US.

As this is a fairly democratic situation, we students are open to as much attack as the staff. A country is said to get the politicians it deserves; if we have complaints about this college we might do well to bear in mind that we may be getting the college we deserve.

I have just completed a somewhat mediocre Teaching Practice and I therefore do not set myself up as a paragon or a sage on all, or any aspects of education.

Most of the people that I have seen in a positon such as I am in now have been clergymen and I therefore find myself starting very traditionally with a text. It comes from an L.P.* by Frank Zappa and refers to the Women of America, but it may well have some relevance here. It reads:

> 'What's the ugliest part of your body?
> Some say your nose, some say your toes,
> But I think it's your mind.'

My part of this function is labelled 'Attitudes' because when I was asked what I would speak about I hadn't a clue, and it seemed a pretty loose title. Perhaps 'My Attitude' would be more accurate; I don't expect everybody to think the same as I do — though the world would undoubtedly be a better place if they did.

Officially, we are being trained to teach children up to the age of 13. It therefore follows that, even if we are teaching in Secondary Schools, our knowledge of our main subject is not of **great** importance in the classroom. Hence we only have one main subject day per week.

I wonder though, whether we ought not to have more education lectures — or some different one anyway. I think there is some important ground left uncovered.

The basis of this attitude of mine is: 'What should the attitude of teachers be?'

Those of us who have faced lower stream classes in a Secondary School will know that, because of the attitude of many of the children in those streams, the teacher cannot always teach a **subject** in the traditional sense of the word.

Thus many teachers are, and all should be, teaching children. And the very words 'teach' and 'children' pre-suppose what we might call 'an eye for the future'. We will be teaching children, but for what? It seems to me that the great divider is whether we are to teach children for Working or for Living. (Unfortunately the two are not the same in our society.)

I suspect that the most usual answer might be that we are teaching children to become 'Useful Members of Society', and a trite epithet for that might be, 'keeping in work and out of trouble'.

Admittedly, in this country we have a relatively low unemployment figure, but on the other hand the numbers of indictable offences are rising very rapidly and apparently half our hospital beds are occupied by patients suffering from mental disorders. If you add to that a steadily rising population and a multi-racial society, you have a problem.

When I was working on the draft for this talk I opened a book† at this point that I had just been loaned. The first lines I read were:

> 'The ignorant man is not the unlearned, but he who does not know himself.'

Rather airy words perhaps, when you are facing 30 or 40 lively 4th stream 13-year-olds — but no more airy I would say, (from a little

experience) than, say, 'The Norman Conquest and the Domesday Book'.

Mr Krishnamurti continues: 'As society is now organised, we send our children to school to learn some technique by which they can eventually earn a livelihood. We want to make the child first and foremost a specialist, hoping thus to give him a secure economic position. But does the cultivation of a technique enable us to understand ourselves?

'While it is obviously necessary to know how to read and write, and to learn engineering or some other profession, will technique give us the capacity to understand life? Surely technique is secondary: and if technique is the only thing we are striving for, we are obviously denying what is by far the greater part of life.'

By the 'greater part of life' I assume that the author means the More Important part of life — but it is also the greater part in a more concrete sense: A person's waking week is roughly 112 hours, while his working week is now about 40 hours and dropping. That leaves some 70 hours which have nothing directly to do with work.

I would say (and this is a personal opinion based on very little experience) that classroom education is a preparation, in the main, for those 40 working hours. With some exceptions, the education of the majority of children is alarmingly close to the 19th century 4 R's, (reading, writing arithmetic and religion).

Whilst not wishing to deprive any child of the chance to get a better job than his father, I am concerned about **our ability** to give the child much in relation to the other 70 hours of his waking week. This is perhaps a vague area of education and probably cannot be confined in a curriculum subject, but I don't feel that we students are being given much help in that direction.

Perhaps we ought to revert to, and live up to, the old title of Teacher Training Colleges; is it enough to study Education if that tends to concentrate on the communication of information? The cognitive process is only a part of the human being.

I think that the problem is very much bound up with the teacher's attitude to the pupil and in connection with this I will quote a few examples that I heard while on Teaching Practice. (I should add that when I noted these remarks I had no thought of this talk.)

Staff canteen. Discussion about the correct pronunciation of a boy's name, spelt C-R-A-B-B-E. Eventually one teacher said, 'He likes it to be said 'Craib', but he's Crab to me and he can lump it!'

Assembly. Girls had taken to wearing long (maxi-coat) scarves around the school. They were told that this practice 'Will stop . . . I know you like them and I think they're great fun, but they're not suitable' (no other explanation) ' . . . it's not what you want — it's what we want.'

The entire school was required to participate in a cross-country race. Teacher referring to his conversation with a boy whose motivation was not the highest: 'We eventually arrived at the point that he lacked guts and determination and wouldn't do anything he didn't want to do . . . For him to walk round when he could have run round at half speed and finished well up the field — that's wet.'

Snow. Some girls wear trousers or jeans. 'You can wear what you like when you get home — normal life resumes after school.'

These quotations are from one, random school which did not appear to me to be a Dotheboy's Hall. I fear it was probably very normal.

> 'It begins with a blessing and ends with a curse,
> Making life easy by making it worse.'
> (Kevin Ayres)

Michael Duane has presented us with the view that an authoritarian society (such as ours) **trains** its members to **need** arbitrary authority and he did much in his own school to alter this situation. I have taught 13-year-old children who, at their young age, **cannot** do their

best without the deterrent of detentions, lines, canes etc.

This situation is often glossed over by the pleasantest people who tell me that children 'need the security of a rule structure'. So may we all, I suspect, but the justfication and quality of that structure is of paramount importance if we care what its effect will be on the resulting adult.

A. S. Neill has shown that (under certain circumstances) it is possible to dispose (almost) entirely with an imposed rule structure in a school. As far as I know, his ex-pupils are not renowned as useless members of society.

And so the object of having more time spent on Education would be twofold:

Firstly — a brief exploration of the curriculum — just what should we teach, and why? (let alone 'how?') This would necessarily not be in depth for most of us, since there are people here who know far better than I what a vast subject this is.

Secondly — what might be called an 'exploration' of ourselves as teachers: who do we think we are, taking charge of other people's children for 6 or 7 hours a day? Because, when it comes to the crunch, it doesn't matter how much you know or what aids and machines you may have — what teaches and influences the children is YOU. In the last analysis, the quality of education depends upon the quality of teachers.

You may have noticed that I have saved two famous (or infamous) names — Duane and Neill — until the end. I am happy to have spoken with both of these men; one was invited here by some students (for which I am grateful) and the other I arranged to visit myself. Neither meeting owed anything to the Establishment of this college. Perhaps this betrays an attitude?

Last term Mr Quick and Mrs King organised a voluntary course to explore the possibilities of an integrated curriculum and in my opinion it was a very valuable experience in many ways. At a guess I would say that the average attendance was about 30. Perhaps this betrays an attitude?

Addenda

'Today's television child is attuned to up-to-the-minute 'adult' news—inflation, rioting, war, taxes, crime, bathing beauties—and is bewildered when he enters the nineteenth century environment that still characterises the educational establishment where information is scarce but ordered and structured by fragmented, classified patterns, subjects and schedules . . .

Today's child is growing up absurd, because he lives in two worlds, and neither of them inclines him to grow up. Growing up—that is our new work, and it is **total.** Mere instruction will not suffice.' ('The Medium is the Massage', Marshall McLuhan and Quentin Fiore, Allen Lane the Penguin Press, 1967.)

* 'We're only in it for the money', Vogue VLP 9199.

† J. Krishnamurti, 'Education and the Significance of Life'. Victor Gollanz, 1969.

BOOK REVIEWS

Towards the New Fifth

English and Humanities for the Young School Leaver

Michael Marland
published by Longmans in 'Education Today' series
Price 15/-

Many secondary schools will find themselves with an overwhelming problem on their hands when the school leaving age is raised to sixteen. For the first time the fifth year will not only contain pupils who have chosen to stay on, but also those who are legally forced to do so. How are we to equip this new fifth year for 'the enjoyment of living, for its better understanding'?

Michael Marland attacks this problem with originality, imagination and sympathy in an extremely exciting and eminently practical book. His aim is 'to provide a flow of activity . . . round subjects of real concern, and to create an interplay of reading, listening, fact-finding, talking, acting, writing, and organising'. Throughout the book are precise examples taken from the author's own experience as Director of Studies in a London comprehensive school, and finally he provides a detailed scheme of work for a typical fifth year topic. Here he utilises new ideas, team teaching for example, but still keeps within a framework that would easily integrate into any school timetable. He ends with a comprehensive list of books that teachers considering the new fifth year would find helpful, together with a more extensive list of books for pupils.

I found this book inspiring and challenging. Challenging in that it not only stimulates the reader, but questions the present structures and traditions of our secondary schools. Here are optimistic, practical suggestions that can be used with academic and non-academic pupils alike in their final year at school, towards 'educating' them in the truest and richest sense of the word.

Hazel Heighway.

Aids to Teaching and Learning

Helen Coppen

Pergamon Press

This is a sound, useful, summary rather than an original or even very stimulating book on educational technology. It provides helpful information on the preparation of 'softwear' for all our new classroom gadgets — and excellent advice on the classroom applications in terms of teaching method as well as technical skill. Miss Coppen also offers valuable lists for further reading — laying some stress on our own Professor Mialaret's 'Psychology of the Use of Audio-Visual Aids in Primary Education' which is as good as its title is long.

Miss Coppen does not entirely successfully solve the problems of giving necessary knowhow without indulging in technical information for its own sake — but who does? Still, this wastes space which might have been better used, for example, in expanding the rather thin section on the reprographic processes (jargon for duplicating and photo-copying), since these are of possibly the greatest value to the classroom teacher and their versatility is often least appreciated. She also fails to offer material on the very economical technique now available with inexpensive single-lens reflex cameras for teacher-made 2 in. x 2 in. slides — which can be made so easily in colour by copying photographs, drawings and so on.

On page 40 she states that 'Standard play tape is best for classroom use as the thinner grades tend to stretch', but omits to mention that standard play is less satisfactory (and often specifically not-recommended) for four track tape recorders because of its less intimate contact with the heads. Since she finished the book in 1967, her ommission of the invaluable casette tape-recorder must be forgiven.

And I cannot accept her calm dismissal (on page 216) of heat fusion and electrostatic copying processes as having little application — since I use them both a great deal! But these four points aside, this is an excellent introduction to the subject for both student and teacher — as a preliminary to real learning in using the equipment and material.

J. M. Wallbridge.

Review of the game Wordmaster Major

from Helen Corkery

Wordmaster Major

Melville Hardiment, Thomas Kremer and John Hicks

McDonald Educational. 35/-

This game was devised to help poor readers in a comprehensive school and extended to be of use to younger children learning to read.

The basic form of the game is a Bingo played with words instead of numbers, and as such was thoroughly enjoyed by a group of boys aged 11-14 years, all poor readers.

What they liked about the game was that the words did not have to be understood. They were not in context nor did they make any claim to meaning. It is no more necessary to 'understand' the words in this game than to conceptualize 'Pentonville Road' in the game of Monopoly. When faced with some of the variations of the game, where the listed words are to be used for sentence-construction or other significant association, they lost interest.

If it is hoped that such children will synthesize sentences from the words in the game they will only remind us of good teaching procedure, as well as current language theory, when they prefer to speak for themselves.

The pressure to utter comes from within. Structured language is found in the slip-stream of experience.

Nevertheless, the children seek for context, but so as to preserve the fun, it must be of their own making. So they will combine the colour of the printing with the word they read, as follows: 'Green — Mouth — That would look funny', 'Red — Baby — That must be an Indian', or 'Green — Teacher — I've never seen one of those'.

The devisers intended the game to be fun. Kept to this, the game is a most enjoyable means to swifter word recognition.

Learning and Creativity with special emphasis on science

John J. Sullivan and Calvin W. Taylor

National Science Teachers' Association, Washington, D.C. (1967. 52 pp (paper). $2.00

This publication, the compilation of two articles, is the result of the work of a National Science Teachers' Association committee studying new approaches to science education in the junior-high school. The **first** deals with theories of learning and methods of investigation and builds a framework for looking at the problems in education by delineating the 'conceptual structure' of psychology. How learning is affected by the design of the school, reinforcement of student's behavior, and discriminative stimuli, is related, as are the characteristics of the language of science and how this language functions as stimuli. Teachers will be interested in following the discussion of how students learn to be anxious, bored, tired, frustrated and develop poor self-concepts in school. It may make some cringe a little, but it has application that will be welcomed by conscientious teachers as will the concise and lucid explanation of Erikson's theory of social development and Piaget's studies of intellectual development.

The **second** article presents several definitions of creativity and a discussion of how knowledge can facilitate or curtail creative thought. Characteristics of creative persons are detailed, then followed by insightful questions directed to the teacher. Whether knowledge or process is more important in teaching the child is not considered to be a real issue. Rather, the case is made for working on both to increase the chances for transfer of training. This is not apt to arouse much controversy today. Nor is the recommendation for developing a curriculum which encourages children to think.

The first of these articles is methodical in its approach to the nature of the learner's behavior, what influences and alters it. Information is given but questions are not raised. The second uses what is known about how new ideas are produced and the characteristics of creative people to generate some provocative questions about the teacher's classroom behavior. While answers are not given, the kinds of questions raised suggest definite kinds of actions on the part of the teacher.

Reviewed by Joseph T. Howard, Supervisor of Curriculum and Instruction, Montgomery County Public Schools, Rockville, Maryland, U.S.A.

Educational studies in mathematics, vol. 1, nos. 1/2, 1968

Reidel, Holland. 246 pp. Dfl.22.50

The first two issues of this international journal devoted to mathematical education contained the proceedings of an international conference held at Utrecht in 1967 to discuss the question of how to teach mathematics so that it should be useful.

This may seem an odd question to be discussing. But there is a real issue here. A great part of elementary arithmetic and geometry may be held to be derived from the external world. But in its development, and certainly in the structural approach of recent times, more advanced mathematics feeds on itself. This introverted attitude can provide powerful and flexible tools for the user but it is not obvious that it has succeeded doing so in general. At one level, the gap between mathematicians and, say, physicists is said to grow wider; at another, physics teachers complain that pupils following new mathematics projects can't do the required sums. And the behavioural sciences have hardly begun to use the highly relevant and applicable mathematics that is available. Contemporary mathematics achieves a generalised freedom by discarding the clutter of detailed particulars. The problem appears to be how it can be taught in a way that retains its flexibility yet enables the specialist in other fields to apply it.

In considering this and related issues, the conference revealed that there are some widely differing views amongst the international experts. Similar controversies about 'structuralism' are now familiar in linguistics, anthropology and allied fields. It is interesting to recall that a structural viewpoint in mathematics was emphasized in the forties by the group of French mathematicians who wrote collectively under the pseudonym of Bourbaki. Their work has been very influential within mathematics, but its implications for education continue to be disputed.

It is perhaps inevitable that the heady intellectualism of the continentals was not to the taste of some of the English participants. A mathematician from Oxford admits he is always afraid of the word 'structure' and claims that the best example he can think of is the Eiffel tower. He is treated gently by the chairman of the panel discussion being reported. In his lecture to the conference, the English Senior Inspector for mathematics argues the case for traditional applied mathematics:

> 'Certainly teachers and intending mathematicians should have precise knowledge about common structures. But except with very intelligent children the analysis of the structure of mathematics should be delayed until they have a good experience of using mathematics.' (p. 99)

A typical example of the vigorously argued opposite approach occurs in a paper by a Belgian:

> 'Apprendre â manier les structures est, á coup sûr, faire oeuvre doublement utile. C'est la raison pour laquelle il ne suffit pas que les structures soient présentées commes des matières supplémentaires, venant coiffer, dans quelque chapitres terminaux, les matières traditionelles qui leur serviraient d'illustrations. Au contraire, dès le debut de l'enseignement, les structures doivent être mises en oeuvre pour organiser la matière étudiée.' (p. 47)

(About one third of the papers are in French, one is in German and the rest are in English.)

In both these cases the discussion appears pedantic and dogmatic. 'Should' and 'doivre' are recurring words. It is a relief to turn to the contribution of Mme Krygovska, a distinguished Polish teacher, who concerns herself with the process of mathematisation. She argues the case that mathematical structures determine the way we organise reality and as such are available in the spontaneous untutored thought of the pre-school child. In her sensitive version the structuralist view seems immensely important and highly challenging to some of our current educational thought, in general as well as in mathematics.

Most of the contributors would probably agree with the American contributor who suggested that mathematics could not be taught to anyone as a spectator sport. There is certainly enough lively mathematics to work at in this issue of the journal. At least half of the papers are devoted to practical details such as the description of situations which yield interesting and useful mathematics. Many of these would be of interest to the specialist secondary teacher, e.g. H. G. Steiner's discussion of voting procedures, a carefully developed paper with many useful examples for the classroom. Mathematics teachers who are unfamiliar with T. J. Fletcher's heuristic approach to matrices are strongly recommended to read his stimulating and helpful paper.

An English mathematician, H. B. Griffiths, usefully dramatises the theme of the conference in the form, 'how do introverts teach extroverts?' Certainly many of the papers indicate that this is not easy; their authors seem beguiled by their own mathematics and there does not seem to be the attention to the process of making, learning or teaching that one might expect. But the few interesting and stimulating papers that have appeared in this and following issues do make this expensive journal worth consulting from various points of view. It is distributed by D. Reidel Co., P.O. Box 17, Dordrecht, Holland. Annual subscription for a volume of 4 issues, about 500 pages, is Dfl.80 (about £10).

D. G. Tahta.

Due to Dr. J. L. Henderson being late back from his visit to Africa, the World Studies Bulletin has had to be delayed, and will not now appear until the **JUNE** issue.

Building Curricular Structures for Science with Special Reference to the Junior High School

Paul F. Brandwein

National Science Teachers' Association, Washington, D.C. 1967. 21 pages (paper). $1.00

In recent years the National Science Teachers' Association has produced scholarly books and pamphlets on science education which pararell books of other educational sources. Such NSTA titles include **A Sourcebook for Science Supervisors** (1967), **Improving Objective Tests in Science** (1967), **Learning and Creativity** (1967), **Designs for Progress in Science Education** (1969), **The Science Teacher and the Law** (1969), and **Behavioural Objectives in the Affective Domain** (1969). This pamphlet by Brandwein is on the level equal to any of them. Much of what Brandwein has to say can be found in his earlier works, such as **The Teaching of Science** (1962, Harvard Press), and **Substance, Structure and Style in the Teaching of Science** (1968, Harcourt, Brace & World). In this recent effort he updates his point of view and rationale by contrasting ideas of Bruner, Gagné and Piaget with his own.

If experience is a criterion, Brandwein speaks with authority on the teaching and learning of conceptual schemes and concept attainment. Such is the focus of this brief pamphlet. Brandwein develops his rationale and discussion to illustrate that teaching for concepts is both purposeful and applicable. This theme is not new to Brandwein and the writing represents about two decades of his thinking and writing. He has already exemplified his point of view by using conceptual schemes in textbook series in elementary and junior high school science, and most recently, in elementary social studies.

The heart of his design is a scope and sequence structure which builds one level upon another, as a child progresses through content and process experiences. The goals are 'conceptual schemes' or big ideas of the content being studied with emphasis on doing and experiencing through student activities. Brandwein leans heavily on the tenet of Percy Bridgman, that 'what we call "scientific methods" (or 'processes of the scientist') are, after all, "methods of intelligence".' The author appeals for an art of teaching which turns experience into meaning, especially critical, Brandwein states, for junior-high children, ages 12 to 15 years. Brandwein alludes to preliminary investigations and evidences which he claims substantiates his hypothesis that children gain in ability and speed in conceptual thinking when they are involved in a curriculum built on conceptual schemes. If this is so, such evidences would be a valuable contribution to the literature. Because of the fervor and **zeitgeis**t over Piaget's descriptions of the intellectual evolution of a child, many curriculum developers must cringe at the thought of some of the concepts and intellectual tasks they had built into their earlier projects, assuming intuitively that children would have no difficulty mastering them in a conceptual or intellectual sense.

Whether one agrees or disagrees with Brandwein's curricular structure based on conceptual schemes, any serious student of curriculum development should consider it as one of the alternatives, along with others such as inquiry training (Suchman), concept attainment (Bruner), learning hierarchies (Gagné), subsumer theory (Ausubel), and the many discovery approaches, such as that of Taba.

Reviewed by John R. Pancella, Supervisor of Science, Montgomery County Public Schools, Rockville, Maryland, U.S.A.

New Writing

Waiting

Emma Gillespie

Pacing restlessly up and down, nervously, repeatedly regarding the clock above the jeweller's shop, showing immense irritation, a youth was waiting.

He stared fascinated and greedy at the gleaming, flashing jewels in the window across the road, like an eagle, looking for the signal to strike and waiting.

Those well defined features were hungry. And his nose sharp and pointed was turning red as it was getting cold and late but still the youth was waiting.

His corn coloured hair which was long to his shoulders was tousled and his maroon leather jacket was streaked with oil — the unkempt youth was waiting.

Although it was cold the youth was feeling hot and choked and bothered as well. It was now one in the morning. He was annoyed with the one who was keeping him waiting.

An hour late what had gone wrong? He paced up and down and I could now hear him cursing loudly as his eyes strolled to the jewels and I, out of sight, dressed identically, laughed to see him waiting.

At last, impatient, he crossed the road. With a wand he forced the lock and walked inside. I entered a kiosk and casually told the police. I was told to remain there — where I was. So now it was my turn to stand there waiting. But I was glad to be there waiting. For an opportunity I had been waiting. To be rid of my double I had been waiting. And he for the same reason had been waiting for me.

Emma Gillespie is 17. She left a Grammar School to seek independence by working in a factory; she intends to write.

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WORLD STUDIES BULLETIN

NUMBER 15 JUNE 1970

advisers to the Bulletin: **Sir Edward Boyle Bt., H. L. Elvin, A. A. Evans, Professor G. L. Goodwin, Sir Ronald Gould, Terence Lawson**

EDITORIAL

Wearing both of my hats, as Chairman of the New Era editorial board and Editor of the World Studies Bulletin, it is pleasant to introduce this fifteenth number of the bulletin in its new context by voicing some aspirations. First, I hope that present readers of both journals will appreciate the enrichment of our text. Secondly, I shall be glad if the original function of the bulletin is seen to continue, namely to act as a channel of information and inspiration for all those engaged in the promotion of world studies. Thirdly, I would very much like our publication to become more truly global: this means having articles and authors represented in our columns from all parts of the world. Fourthly, and as a result of our merger, I believe it should be possible greatly to increase our circulation and so to be able to afford a more adventurous overall publications policy—a lively correspondence section. some pictorial matter, useful advertisements. These aims could be realised overnight quite cheaply and dramatically by each reader of these lines making it his or her business to enlist a new subscriber by return of post plus 30/- to The New Era Secretary, Yew Tree Cottage, Roundabouts, Five Ashes, Mayfield, Sussex.

During February and March I was privileged to undertake a lecture tour under the auspices of the British Council in Sierre Leone and Ghana. The object of the exercise was for me to meet University, Training College and School teachers and students of history and by discussion seminars and lectures to cultivate our respective pedagogical gardens. My longest stay in any one place was a fortnight at University College, Cape Coast, Ghana, but I also paid shorter visits to Kumasi and Accra as well as a first week in Freetown, Sierre Leone and a final week-end, crowned with a sandstorm, in Northern Nigeria.

At present the dominant impressions I have brought home with me from this extremely brief exposure to the vivid West African scene are general and educational. With regard to the former what struck me forcibly was the tenacity of tribal loyalties, the excruciatingly difficult language problem of communication and the tendency towards social alienation of the post-colonial new ruling classes from the masses of their fellows still bound in the fetters of poverty and illiteracy. With regard to the latter I was distressed by the fact-sodden, examination-ridden nature of much that was going on under the guise of education in most of the institutions I visited. This is of course perfectly understandable when to get up and out of the lowest conditions of material human existence necessitates much learning and repeating by rote in a foreign language, English and then hanging on like grim death to the office or position attained for one's own and one's relatives' sakes.

It was a moving and chastening experience to speak with representatives of that 3% or 4% of the population possessing or acquiring a full Secondary education and even embarking on a Tertiary One. Their intelligence, initiative and humourful endurance call for very deep admiration and respect.

Perhaps the most illuminating experience I had was working out a history project with a group of student-teachers at University College, Cape Coast. We chose as our topic, 'The Slave Trade', and we prepared our material within sight of the fortress of Elmina, the oldest fortified stronghold of the White, West

African slave-traders. It proved a fascinating exercise in human relationships and world studies for all of us to try and sift the motives of those involved in that appalling traffic and then to decide how to present to our pupils a balanced picture of the causes, course and consequences of this as a historical phenomenon. At times we did seem to get very near the heart of that deep mystery, which seems to lie at the core of history, namely that the more we understand, the less we disagree.

James L. Henderson

I. UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

Modern Studies at Brighton College of Education

Derek Heater and Gwyneth Owen

By the Balance of Training Agreement of 1960 Colleges of Education are required to prepare the bulk of their students for teaching in Primary Schools. At Brighton only about 60 of each year's intake specialise in Secondary work and these, as in other Colleges, are specialists in the shortage subjects — viz.: Mathematics, Physical Science, Religious Studies and Physical Education. Despite their subject specialisation, however, these students are required to pursue some professional courses to fit them for general teaching. One of these options is called Modern Studies. This course has been running for four years now, but the emphasis during this academic year (1969-70) has for the first time been global in content.

The course is based on two assumptions. The first is that pupils of limited academic ability (the course is focussed at the 'Newsom' level) need to be stimulated by being presented with learning materials of a variety of kinds. The second assumption is that we should be teaching young people about the problems that are likely to face the world in the forseeable future. It is our firm belief that any effective understanding of the growing world problems must involve a Biological as well as a Social Science perspective. And we have identified these problems as Food and Population; Race; Radiation and Pollution Dangers.

The course runs for two-and-a-half terms with a time allocation of about three hours per week. The first half term was devoted to introducing the students to the whole idea of teaching Modern Studies to the school-leaver with particular emphasis on audio-visual presentation of material. During the next one-and-a-half terms the students were introduced to each of the three topics in turn and then invited to select one aspect for presentation in a palatable form. The students often worked in pairs. A wide range of teaching materials has been produced. These have included tape-recordings, slides, overhead-projector transparencies, wall-charts, work-sheets and questionnaires.

The students appreciate the work-shop approach. It has many advantages. In the first place, it is a change from the intense intellectual concentration required in a lecture or seminar; secondly, they are finding out and recording for themselves in ways similar to the enquiry approach to learning that we are encouraging them to use in school; and finally, they are being forced to use their ingenuity to devise ways of presenting material that will be stimulating and comprehensible to academically limited pupils.

The half term available to us in the Summer Term we are using for visits. The aim of these is to give the students an exercise in preparing for a school visit (including background and follow-up work), using the local environment as a spring-board from which to launch studies of global proportions. Examples include the local sewage works and pollution; the local fishing industry and the world food problem; the local Civil Defence Officer and the danger of nuclear war.

We are, of course, constantly learning and adjusting as we go along. We are learning from each other, since Historians and Biologists rarely collaborate and therefore rarely share the same ways of thinking. We have learnt of the rich variety of organisations that

provide pamphlet material — free or at low cost; and we have learnt how long it takes to file this material and press cuttings we collect each week. We have learnt that the students need a lot of time and technical help if their materials are to be of acceptable quality. We have learnt that our course is of interest to other people: we are now involved with UNESCO's Associated Schools Project and with a Sussex University in-service training programme.

The teaching of World Affairs most frequently falls to the History specialist; and associations and conferences devoted to education for international understanding often consist of more than a fair share of Historians. But teachers of World Affairs must look to the future rather than to the past; and if the Historian utilises his knowledge of the past in order to discern trends that he can extrapolate into the future, he must do so with the realisation that his purist colleagues will view him as a renegade. Let the History teacher who will, face the future in the company of a sympathetic Biologist whose subject will become increasingly important for an understanding and a mastery of the forseeable problems of the world.

University of London Goldsmiths' College

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Dear Colleague,

£100 Video-tape Competition

At the invitation of Rt. Hon. Sir Edward Boyle, M.P., Chairman of the Education Advisory Committee founded by the all-party Parliamentary Group for World Government, we are providing facilities for a competition open to all teachers who have attended one of the courses, or its equivalent, for a short videotape on a theme which would **'help to stimulate a greater sense of world community'**, among school children and students. The scope of the competition is intentionally wide, so that it could span such subjects as the overcoming of economic and cultural barriers, the rule of international law, the pooling of resources, as well as more personal local issues such as immigrants, refugees, child poverty.

We shall provide facilities here for prospective competitors to view their own material on our cameras, and to produce story-boards or scripts. On submission, these will be shortlisted, and those selected will be eligible for more extended sessions, leading to the videotaping of the finished programme in our new television centre. The adjudication will be made in the light of subsequent trials of finalists' programmes in appropriate classrooms.

An award of £100 will be made to the winner of the competition, whose entry will, it is hoped be also made available to schools in film cassette form.

The preferred duration is five minutes, and the maximum ten minutes. The competition is open to syndicates as well as individuals, but the essential is that at least one member of any team should already have relevant television experience.

If you are interested please write to Tony Gibson at the above address.

II. SCHOOLS

Teaching about 'Developing Nations and International Aid in the Upper Primary School

I. A. Graham
Craigie College of Education, Ayr

In late 1969 the Scottish Standing Committee for Voluntary International Aid requested Craigie College of Education, Ayr, to inquire into how teaching about 'Developing Nations and International Aid' might be effected in the Primary School.

An immediate reaction of the lecturer concerned was to consider that themes such as the needs and problems of these countries, the complexity of the factors involved in international aid and the present and future problem of population pressures on food supplies might be too sophisticated for the Primary school and were better left to the Secondary sphere.

Research on the attitudes of Primary school children to foreigners and their institutions[1] indicates that these are formed and hardened before they move on to the Secondary education and that these attitudes are determined without accurate background information. This, plus the inescapable fact that a major feature of social studies teaching, at whatever level, is to prepare pupils to understand a remote environment, a political, economic and social milieu, either in the past or in the distance, with which direct contact may never be experienced, makes it appear imperative that some aspects of international understanding ought to be undertaken as part of the learning process in the Primary school.

An inquiry was carried out in a class of 44 pupils (average age of 10½ years) of all ranges of ability and drawn from varied social catchment area.

The aims were:—

(1) to assess the relevance of the theme to the upper Primary school.

(2) to convey, as a first priority, a background of accurate geographical, socio-economic facts by a Sample/Unit Study of a village in India, i.e. a detailed picture of People, Place and Way of Life, typical, as far as is possible, of the immediate environment.

(3) to further child-centred activity methods and experience in articulating these.

(4) to stress the interpretation of passages and quotations, of diagrams and graphs, to promote role playing and socio-drama.

(5) to provide for teachers on a later In-Service Course some guidelines on attitude and moral training of pupils.

The stages may be summarised thus:— one lesson of 3/4 hour per week, eight lessons:

1. introductory oral lesson with visual aids contrasting advantages of a technologically advanced nation (Scotland) with a country dependent on the vagaries of weather and other environmental factors;
2. interpretative work cards on a Handout of six pages re Houses, Clothes, Food, School, Work (group work);
3. imaginative work cards emphasising role-playing, e.g. reporter interviews Indian/Scottish pupils exchanging visits to homeland;
4. handouts (coming of famine to village; problems of India; world population and food supplies) and photo/poster display of deprivation elements—discussion thereof;

5-7 interpretative work cards on passages, quotations, diagrams, graphs on deprivation elements, e.g. deciding priorities for allocation of aid funds/experts (group work);

8. concluding discussion/consolidation lesson.

It must be emphasised that this inquiry was limited by the nature of the work. Explanation was kept to a minimum, since it was important to ascertain the extent of the children's deductive powers. Interest had not flagged by the eighth session and under normal conditions a teacher would provide more enrichment material, such as a film/filmstrip and devote more time to the discussion of and clarification of some misconcepts. Certain aspects were not explored, e.g. the rapid changes taking place in rural India, the question of how much aid a Developed Nation might send.

Amongst the conclusions drawn, the following merit reporting:—

1. Given the range of abilities within the class, results and methods of work proved satisfactory. Pupils seemed to appreciate that environments differ, that man's achieve-

ments and ways of life are influenced by a combination of factors: environmental factors such as climate variations, water supply; cultural mores such as religion and tradition; the level of technological development; and that in India man does not control his environment as effectively as in Scotland. The interpretation of passages, quotations, and graphs, the role-playing and socio-drama surpass expectations. It was considered that possible extensions such as music, art and craft activities, would have contributed little further to the pupils' understanding of the theme. The pursuit of integration in the Primary school can often be time-consuming and non-purposeful. The theme is of sound educational value in the upper Primary school.

2. Standard geography textbooks and monographs used in Primary schools tend to present an attractive romanticised picture of life in Developing Nations. Aspects of deprivation are rarely stressed; the acceleration of changes in life and technology is omitted, so that pupils receive outmoded concepts.

3. Most of the materials from the Voluntary Organisations are orientated towards the Secondary sphere. Materials which are intended for Primary use are often unstructured, incomplete and superficial; some of the children's activities are merely performance of tasks and ought to be more intellectually demanding.

4. The Sample Study approach is recommended, i.e. a study of one representative area/family/community so that children can identify themselves with a human situation, contrast it with their own, and articulate the two for the enlargement of both. Having established a background of this nature, an approach may be made then to the abstract study of international affairs and problems. Similar conclusions were reached by the International Federation of Teachers' Associations ('International Understanding in Primary Schools,' UNESCO 1967). Consequently it is viewed that producing pamphlets on concepts such as Hunger, Malnutrition, Poverty, Disease, Lack of education etc. and citing examples from various countries leads to confusion about the different cultures and lessens the desired impact. The way towards making a Primary school child handle abstract concepts, to use reason and judgment is to interest him in people and concrete situations.

5. It is almost axiomatic to state that the Primary school pupil should work from the known to the unknown, from the 'here and now' to the 'then and there'. The principle of the expanding environment provides for the school beginner an interpretation of the environment in which he lives, about which he can form generalisations which are relevant to his life and which he can verify. The accumulative effect of the mass media, however, poses the question, 'what is unknown?' Children today advance rapidly beyond the immediate confiines of their communities. They require to be aided in the interpretation of the distant world for they are exposed to it at an early age. 'Thus the issue of whether children are ready to study a theme is not 'here and now' versus 'then and there' but rather superficial study versus study which brings out underlying principles, relationships, and processes'.[2]

Those teaching Social Studies should be more concerned with teaching understandings than with causing children to memorise facts. Understandings, provided they are made explicit as teaching points, persist long after the facts which pointed to them have been forgotten. As an introduction to living together in the world today understandings are more effective than any collection of facts. To understand, for example, that everywhere men interact with their environments is more valuable for this purpose than to know, in this case, the names of the cities, rivers and mountains of India.

6. There are many varied and differing opinions expressed about attitude training. At the outset it was resolved not to approach the theme from a Love Thy Neighbour, Human Rights avenue. It was not the aim

to act as a channel for charity or compassion, since, too often, sentimental, unrealistic and banal emotions are aroused. The definition of our educational aims is not narrow: academic/scholarly is an intermediate stage which should lead to a moral outlook regarding the problems of a wider community. The statement in the Newsom Report is valid. 'All boys and girls need to develop, as well as skills, capacities for thought, judgment, enjoyment and curiosity. They need to develop a sense of responsibility for their work and towards other people, and to begin to arrive at some kind of moral and social behaviour which is self-imposed'. They ought not to be preached at. The Primary school is the starting point for promoting tolerance to counteract some of the prejudices which arise from the environmental background. But it should be remembered that 'attitudes are caught, not taught'.[3]

References

1 H. TAJFEL and G. JAHODA, The Development in Children of Ideas about their own and other Countries (New Era, May 1967); I. PUSHKIN, Ethnic Choice in the Play of Young Children (Ibid.).

2 R. C. PRESTON, Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School, (Holt, Rinehart & Winston).

3 Although 'colour' did not emerge prominently in this inquiry, it does appear that some research has a bearing on teachers' approaches to attitude training. The evidence is confusing: sometimes there is a restriction in prejudice; sometimes, particularly in the case of adolescents, the prejudice is worsened when any attempts are made to reduce it. See H. J. MILLER, The Effectiveness of Teaching Techniques for Reducing Colour Prejudice (Liberal Education, No. 16, July 1969).

Improvisation in Nepal

The role of the education programme in the development of a new Community

R. J. Catchpole, B.A.Cantab., Dip.Ed. Lond. Inst.

In 1964 a group of particularly poor Tibetan refugees arrived in Pokhara (80 miles West of Katmandu) from the North of Nepal looking for aid. The responsibility for this group was adopted by the newly formed Nepal Red Cross, acting as the implementing agency for the U.N.H.C.R. We were a team of three U.N.A. volunteers sent from the U.K. to help Nepal Red Cross with the relief and resettlement problems and to start the process of community development.

When we arrived at the camp in November 1965, several hundred of the refugees were squatting in a 3-acre field and more people were arriving each day. The people were huddled in ragged tents and brushwood huts and conditions were extremely poor.

Our field team decided that, although we could see several obvious areas in which major developments could start at once, these would all have to be interrelated from the outset and based on a sound knowledge of the community, its social setting, possibilities for the future and support that could be given. Our role was a delicate one as there was almost a complete initiative/leadership gap which should be filled by groups which included us but were not run by us. To be really useful we had to have a thorough knowledge of the situation. We therefore built a house in the camp and learned to live there, helped maintain the relief operation and started a complete survey of the community, the surroundings and the aid situation.

The social survey showed that there were 500 people in 120 family groups. Only 20 of the potential 200 workers were working and the others were dependent on very basic rations. There was an abnormally high proportion of dependents. The health of the people was extremely poor. The people had some skills (weaving, simple agricultural and handyman, trading). The people were thinking from day to day and had no plans for the future.

The education programme was at this time limited mainly to the organisation of the group of 120 children to receive relief. Lines of communication between this 'school' and sources of finance and materials had almost completely broken down. Thus an education programme had to be started almost from scratch.

The first step forward in the school was to

hand over much of the relief work (handing out the daily meal, basic hygiene, looking after the smaller children) to the older children. This freed us and the other teachers to consider and implement simple organisational changes in the school. Channels of communication were opened with sources of educational aid. A temporary bamboo school was built, five classes were separated out by ages and a limited timetable was drawn up with English included only for the older children and only after winning the point that Nepali had to be taken seriously also.

We now had a simple base which ran fairly easily and gave us the freedom to think more deeply about long term developments. A plot of land $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the south of the refugee camp had been allocated for the building of a new community so we could now plan for permanence.

The education plans were made by a committee formed by us which was composed of the Tibetan and Nepali teachers, two of our field team and for certain meetings a local Nepali headmaster. The factors which came out of our discussions and which were to dictate our policy were:—

(a) None of the children had had more than one year's formal education. They could write Tibetan and speak Nepadi only. Yet there was a fair range of ability and keenness to learn in each age group. This keenness in many cases was affected one way or the other by the state the family was in. In some families the older members were all sick and the child played a key relief role. In some big families which were relatively healthy and intact the child had an excellent base from which to concentrate on learning.

(b) Some of the middle age group children (11 to 14) were bright and could, if given special attention, catch up with their Nepali counterparts and continue normal secondary education. On the other hand some of the older age group (15 to 17) were too old to catch up with secondary education but were ideal material for skill training.

(c) The Tibetans wanted their own school system. It was evident though that there would be little financial support for this idea. Added to this the Nepali secondary schools provided good academic and vocational training and were keen to have Tibetans.

(d) The economic projects (small farm, hotel, crafts, trading, building) would soon need keen young workers with some basic education and could could provide a few opportunities for skill training. There were also several suitable Nepali apprenticeship schemes and the money was available from aid agencies to enable Tibetans to join these.

(e) in the short term when the relief food was cut there would be strong pressure for the children to become wage-earners. (Whilst the relief food was there the Tibetans tended to view education as an end in itself and not something which had to help solve the community's problems). In the long term though there would be a great need for skilled young Tibetans to plan, manage and initiate social and economic developments in the community.

Plans could now be made on a realistic basis. We obviously had to compromise between the short and long term calls that the community's needs would make on the education programme.

For the middle and older age group children we decided that there could be four possible courses of action:—

(a) To leave the school and join the camp labour force.

(b) To leave the school and take up some form of skill training.

(c) To move into the Nepali secondary school system.

(d) To continue in the Tibetan 'primary school' for more than one year.

To prepare the children as well as possible within a year for these different futures we developed a comprehensive element in the senior half of the school. The two top classes were streamed.

'A' class was composed of the six children who could with a push join the Nepali secondary school within a year, several who could make it in two years and the 12 who seemed suitable material for the more complex skill training. With 'A' class the teachers concentrated on disciplines particularly Nepali and English grammar and more difficult arithmetic. These children were encouraged to use their minds, to work hard, to read and to get used to homework.

'B' class had the boys and girls who would take on simpler apprenticeships or join the work gang. Here the stress was on practical usage: spoken Nepali and to a certain extent English (the language of tourism) and practical Nepali arithmetic.

Both classes continued with Tibetan grammar, culture and religion.

The main problem of implementing this plan was one of selection. Interesting methods could have been devised to locate the intelligent child and to sort out those who were being held back by adverse family pressures. In practice we could only give a series of tests on school work covered, and discuss the results at length amongst the staff so that their 'feel' of a child's potential was brought to bear. Later when selecting apprentices we faced a new element in the selection problem: the young workers who had never been to school but who were practical, intelligent and keen. For this we formed a selection committee which included a project manager and a representative of the community and which interviewed each candidate. There were big opportunities at stake. The apprentices were to learn advanced weaving techniques, horticulture, hotel work, animal husbandry, building techniques, simple mechanics, and nursing. They were all to link in with projects already being started. Selection had to be very fair. The committee tried to impress on the successful candidates that they were given this chance on behalf of the community.

By Winter 1967 when the job of resettlement was almost over there were on the education side a permanent primary school in a new building run along Nepali lines but with a distinct Tibetan cultural flavour, four Tibetan children holding their own in the Nepali secondary school, an apprenticeship scheme involving 40 young Tibetans and a permanent nursery school.

The school had also had several unplanned influences on the community. The children were active and their morale was high. This tended to boost the morale of the adults. The children were taking more care of their personal hygiene and this had spread.

Some of the older boys and girls were even discussing a future!

Our field team left the community in November 1967 but we have maintained contact since then. The school has now been officially recognised by the Government of Nepal and has 30 Nepali students. It is doing well and more children are moving into the Nepali secondary school. Some of the apprentices are back in the community and certainly a few are using their skills. Three Tibetan young men, trained abroad, are helping the community to manage its own affairs.

The question one asks at this point, two and a half years into the development phase, is: 'How does the Education Programme stand now in relationship to the community's and the area's other development points? Are the schools, the secondary school and apprenticeship schemes adding up to the number of young people in Pokhara with dreams of a good job who in fact face unemployment or at best unskilled manual labour. If the economy is not developing and diversifying then are the young people drifting away thus making the load of supporting the dependents even heavier? How many young people have the initiative drive and loyalty to stay and help pull the economic and social projects off the ground? It is very much to the young people that the community will look for this. But it will take time for the children coming through the Pokhara system to mature and make an impact. There will be a gap. This gap is, to a certain extent, being filled by the young Tibetans who have been trained abroad. Much

will depend upon the success of their special training and on how well they can translate it into useful action.

III ORGANISATIONS

The Experiment in International Living

Caught by the Future

Audrey Beste and Nancy Stuart

'There are many people going around the world . . . some are caught by the future.' Jung

There comes a time when one longs to leap. Leap with eager enthusiasm to go, to respond to whatever one meets 'out there'. The difficulty is that opportunities for the adolescent to leap are few. He is usually expected to conform, to repeat the known pattern. Rarely does he have the chance to be 'caught by the future'.

In 1966 The Experiment in International Living inaugurated an Anglo-American program of family living and study for secondary students. Through the cooperation of parents, Directors of Education. Headmasters and Headmistresses, high school students are visiting classes and becoming family members in the United States and Great Britain. The Direct Exchange Program provides for a three to four week experience in the eastern United States with the return of the American counterpart to the family in England. The results of studying and travelling have proved that this Experiment educational program for secondary school students is vital — it provides the opportunity to leap.

The Experiment in International Living in Putney, Vermont, founded in 1932 is the oldest and largest nonprofit educational institution of its kind in the world offering young adults the rare and memorable experience of living as a 'native' in another land and culture. It does this through a variety of 'homestay', travel, study and language-learning programs, designed to fit the abilities and expectations of a wide range of ages and learning levels: for 13 year old pupils, to postgraduate students of language and international affairs. The programs are planned with the cooperation of a net-work of independent, national Experiment offices in 60 nations. The British Experiment is located in Malvern, Worcestershire, under the direction of Mr James Elphick.

Each Experimenter benefits from an expert orientation, including intensive language training when required, before he joins his family abroad. Experimenters join together into small travel groups of 10 to 15 with a trained group leader. Living in a home is the heart of every Experiment program. The family is the oldest and, The Experiment believes, still the best classroom in the world. Every Experimenter learns what it is like to be an Englishman, Italian, Brazilian, American, Japanese, Frenchman. He lives an exciting, broadening adventure — a rewarding immersion in another culture. He often learns to understand and speak another language, rapidly and without drudgery. He is certain to make lifelong friends. The experience is invariably much more intense and memorable than simply 'touring abroad'. Best evidence of its lasting impact is the fact that more than half of the Experiment's alumni are still involved in some type of international activity, on either a volunteer or career basis.

Preston Haglin, a junior at Breck School in Minneapolis, Minnesota, who lived in England, put it this way: 'All the text books in the world cannot teach a person to appreciate fully his fellow humans or to live with and understand his own shortcomings. We have gone further by growing, maturing and learning to understand and appreciate the world around us which is the first step to wholeness'.

One of the headmasters in a participating school in Essex, commented, 'The group of American students are a credit to themselves, to their parents, to their home environment and to American education. We are pleased to have them in our school community. They,

and we, have gained much and we have made sincere friendships which will last for a long time.'

Kathleen Flinn from Rutland, Vermont, at the end of the summer, reflected, 'One must stand on the outside and look through the eyes of others to see better how things are. This experience in England taught me to think — to explore new areas of thought.'

Many of the Experimenters pursued independent study projects of personal interest while they were overseas. Karen Ashley from Lexington, Massechusetts, chose to study the stained glass in several English cathedrals. She began to feel a deep personal relationship with their symbolism as she interpreted their meaning. 'Oftentimes I wanted to alienate myself from the humming tourists around me as I tried to capture the feel of a window,' she said. 'But I thought again, realizing that alienation was wrong because the world is made up of relationships between people . . . '

The British local representative who arranged for the homestay as well as a number of family activities, commented, 'We found them a lively, stimulating influence.'

Jan Marks from Great Neck, New York, felt that through her experience of being a member of an English family she developed a far deeper appreciation and a greater maturity in understanding her own family.

This summer the British and American Experiment Offices are coordinating an ever growing student exchange at the secondary level. The impact of the entire program effort was expressed by one of participating students, Andrew Hardenburg from Minneapolis. 'You can never go home — not after a rebirth of wonder. And if this trip has accomplished that much, then all praise be to it. You stepped away from all you've ever known, looked back for a long time, found yourself and brought him along. This trip finds you finding yourself.'

T.E.A.M. International Summer School

'The European and Atlantic Communities — Prospects for the '70s'

International Summer School, St. Edmund Hall, Oxford University, 4th–14th August. Can Europe unite? Is political integration essential for economic union? Can the Atlantic idea be a valid basis for foreign policies? Should European-Atlantic problems be approached in the spirit of interdependent co-operation or of national rivalry? Is closer political integration desirable? And if so, should it be European? Or Atlantic? Or what? Where might solutions be sought to the urgent and tragic problems of race relations, poverty and urban revolt? Would order and progress in the world be more assured if a united Europe and her North American partners were deliberately to seek mutually acceptable policies in their economic and strategic relationships?

The School is supported by the OECD and NATO, the Council of Europe, the European Community and EFTA. The language of the course will be English. Applications are invited from lecturers and teachers of relevant subjects, journalists, voluntary workers and opinion formers in related fields. To accepted members, a bursary of £20 reduces the cost from £52 to £32, for a single room in Hall, full board and tuition. Prospectus and application form from T.E.A.M. (The European-Atlantic Movement), 7 Cathedral Close, EXETER, Devon, England.

IV PUBLICATIONS

Hammarskjöld

James L. Henderson

(Makers of the Modern World. Methuen 25/-)

To the casual observer of the international scene, Dag Hammarskjold is something of an enigma; the isolate devoting himself to human affairs, the scholar turned man of action, the international civil servant creating policies. Fleetingly one wonders was he unable to

make personal contacts? Was he arrogant beyond belief? Was he excruciatingly shy? Dr Henderson performs the great service of pitching the enquiry at a deeper level, matching up the inner and the outer man, and presenting this highly complex and cultivated character in the round.

He suggests that the key to his life is given by W. H. Auden in his introduction to 'Mark ings', Hammarskjold's own record of the milestones in his negotiations with himself and with God. It was no less than 'the attempt by a professional man of action to unite in one life the Via Activa and the Via Contemplativa.'' Or in Hammarskjold's own words, 'In our age, the road to holiness necessarily passes through the world of action.' It is clear that the contemplative is prior in his temperament and development to the man of action and nowhere is this more apparent than at the point when he was called to be the Secretary General of the United Nations. The invitation came, as is shown in chapter one, as a confirmation of his acceptance of life and faith after a period of frustration and despair and fear of the darkness within; an echo of the 'dark night of the soul' known to medieval mystics. Indeed there are echoes of many men in the facets of this immensely gifted and original personality; of T. S. Eliot — 'Now you have been there and it wasn't much. Throughout life, how many steps must we take, how many hours must we spend, in order to have heard, to have seen what?'' writes Hammarskjold; of Kafka — we live 'in a bombed city' where the inhabitants cannot do more than 'seek an occasional protection, without any thoughts of continuity, plan or permanence' he said; and most insistently echoes of St. John of the Cross — the same harsh purity, the fundamentally detached celibacy, and that same last temptation of the saints — not so much to power, for although he undoubtedly enjoyed power he was scrupulous not to abuse it in terms of the Charter — but to spiritual pride. Judged by the self-chosen standard of holiness, if he failed it was perhaps more because of self consciousness than arrogance. He could not stop taking his spiritual temperature. He addressed himself in 'Markings' as 'you' and even more ominously observed himself as 'he'. He could not escape from his own narcissism.

He failed too, in the end, in his public work, the development of which is traced with clarity in the middle chapters of the book. These deal with U.N. interventions in the series of crises from the American airmen detained in China, through Suez, the Lebanon, Laos, all of which enhanced the prestige of the U.N. 'presence', to the final fatal engagement in the Congo. Dr Henderson draws out the manner in which Hammarskjold increasingly depended on his own initiatives and decisions, taking short cuts to by-pass the machinery of councils as his confidence increased; and the corollary that the U.N. came more and more to 'leave it to Dag' and to evade giving him specific enough briefs. In the end it was more than one man could carry, however skilled, courteous and sensitive. His failure is the more serious as it may well have made it more difficult for the U.N. to carry out effective peace-making as a body. A procedure so impermanent and fragile as to depend on the gifts and judgment — even charm — of a single individual, had a built-in lack of stability and safeguards. Yet one is forced to ask whether the only alternative to individual brilliance and initiative is collective ineptitude, for the U.N. has been at least less conspicuous since his death.

This dilemma of the history teacher—the man or the movement — the individual or the institution — is implicit in the book. Dr Henderson is forced to an early digression on the structure of the U.N. which inevitably detracts from the interest in the main character, though it is difficult to see how it could be omitted, or even be more minimal. But the man himself rightly dominates the book. In the last chapter there is a usefully diverse collection of opinions on Hammarskiold as well as even more illuminating extracts from his own writings — lectures, reflections and poems. The disadvantage of much quotation is that the text becomes disjointed and for this reason it is a pity to use some quotations more than once in the course of the book. Dr Henderson's writing, like that of Hammarskjold himself, sometimes tends to be rather cryptic,

and in probing the inner man, he occasionally allows himself a Jungian shorthand with which some students may be unfamiliar. The book has a map of the Congo, an index and a calendar of events in Hammarskjold's life. It would have been helpful if the text had been appended of those articles of the Charter to which specific reference is made.

This concise volume draws a penetrating and balanced portrait of a man both attractive and repellent; aloof and human; confident of his own excellence in intellectual, cultural and moral spheres, and consumed by doubt of his own motives. The enigma remains, yet one is left with the impression that here indeed is a **man.** If he failed in his dual role, in the last resort it hardly matters. That he made so nerve-stretching an attempt is a measure of human possibility. This is the stuff that heroes, and perhaps saints, are made of.

Jeanne P. Bolam

Shorter Notices:

The United Nations: the next Twenty-five years. Twentieth Report of the Commission to study the Organisation of Peace. Louis B. Sohn (Chairman), 866 United Nations Plaza, New York NY 10017, USA. November 1969. A useful and thoughtful review.

The New Imperialism by M. E. Chamberlain. Historical Association (G. 73), London 1970. A timely stocktaking with regard to the historian's varying assessments of this phenomenon.

OXFAM, 274 Banbury Road, Oxford, offers a Circular for Teachers on Oxfam's Educational Work together with relevant books available at Primary and Secondary School levels.

Politische Bildung in England: 1939-1965 (Klaus Schleicher: Quelle and Meyer, Heidelberg, 1970). This forms a valuable companion piece to The Teaching of Politics edited by D. B. Heater (Methuen Educational Limited), Schleicher's theme is that there is a dangerous time-lag in England between changing political realities and the political consciousness of the people.

V. THEME

Florence Nightrangle and other World Community Heroes

The spelling was often unorthodox but we now know whom it is teachers and student teachers from 37 countries representing seven or eight of the main cultural systems of the world, regard as the persons they would wish to present to children as benefactors of the world community — 'a knowledge of whom would be likely to encourage world understanding'. Those who answered the enquiry were spurred on by the hope of winning a first prize of a trip round the world to the 25 places most associated with persons, living or dead, listed on the prize-winning entry. The widespread response to the Competition shows that it is not only love that makes the world go round, but also that going round the world may make for love — or if not love, education about such things as benefactors of H.S.*

In spite of the fact that the teachers who answered live and work in such different backgrounds as Hungary and Sarawak, Poland and Ecuador, Brazil and Ceylon, U.S. and Senegal, Norway and the Philippines, Belgium and Malaysia, Canada and Ethiopia, there was an overwhelming consensus in the year 1969 that Gandhi was such a benefactor 'That the question now to be put' was the work of the Education Advisory Committee founded by the all-party British Parliamentary Group for World Government. For ten years that Committee, whose joint chairman Sir Edward Boyle M.P., is chairman of the International panel of 14 Judges and Sponsors of the World Community Heroes International Competition, has been trying to implement the observation of the late Lord Attlee that a main reason why we do not have an effective system of world order on this planet is because 'people are all educated in the opposite direction'. 'Do something about it' said Lord Attlee. Educationalists seem to agree that the principal age and location for loyalty-fixation as far as the education system is concerned, is in the primary school. It is there that we first hear about and are likely to identify with Alfred, Drake, Marlborough, Clive, Nelson, Wellington, Churchill, or if we are French with Clovis,

Joan of Arc, Francois I, Turenne, Napoleon, Foch and de Gaulle. As we have so often heard, the British Grenadiers for the past 200 years took precedence over Alexander, Hercules, Hector and Lysander and such great names as these. What can now be said is that there may have been a shift in the world pedagogical ethos in that inventors, healers, explorers, artists (enrichment of life), men of religion, reformers, even showbiz personalities, are now strong competitors with successful politicians and generals. Furthermore, there is no doubt that some reputations have become supranational, transational or multinational — perhaps about 100 names in all. These may be the basis for that new pantheon of exemplars, called for by Kenneth Boulding, without whom a sense of world community can hardly be created.

The organisers of the Competition have announced that they will publicise the results of the Competition, sending the prizewinning entry to every educational establishment that entered for the Competition. This should do something to lay the foundations for a new world mythology, strong enough to compete in popularity with the present national/tribal sagas so often taught in schools throughout the world.

Of course the list of 100 or so names have transcended frontiers, such names as Florence Nightingale, Abraham Lincoln, Madam Curie, Gutenberg, Marconi, Dunant, may be the result of ready availability of certain reference books. It is possible that there is here evidence which the Board of Trade and City Committees of enquiry into the number of copies of Chambers Encyclopedia sold by Mr Robert Maxwell on that world tour of his a few years ago, would do well to study. (Or, of course, that the Encyclopedia Britannica is still in good heart and haley). Clearly all teachers must take at second-hand, that is from book-reading, the stories of the heroes of the past. All the more interesting then to find that quite a lot preferred to keep to the present. Where there is no school library, historical personages are likely to perish since film, TV and the newspapers are the means of instruction. It is clear therefore that the organisers of the Competition need to think not only about providing written material about the pantheon of heroes of the world community, but also film material and material based on news sent out by the TV networks.

It could also be of great interest if the organisers were to publish an index of all names from all the entries with a thumbnail statement of who they are, so that teachers can see what the field is—and how many of those nominated are still living. Secondly, the popularity poll of heroes in this Competition could be the basis for a fascinating regular five yearly event, which might even begin to shape a world system of values as to what 'heroism' really is. For instance, how 'heroic' is it to be first in an endeavour? The number of inventors nominated seems to indicate that many people think it is important; after all to be first is for a short time to be unique and to be unique is to be original and to be original is often to be courageous and to be courageous is to be heroic. One wonders. Gandhi, Lincoln, Luther King, Jesus Christ, John F. Kennedy, Dag Hammarskjold, Socrates—all world community hero material—all apostles in varying degree of non-violence — all died violent deaths. Is that why they are heroes? Pasteur, Nobel, Churchill, Shakespeare, Columbus, Helen Keller, Buddha, Edison, what do they have in common? We know now that they were successful. But fame and merit are different things. In their lifetime how many were aware that their reputation would be greater after they were dead? Along with recommending many famous people, there were some recommended who were known only to the teacher who nominated them — their private (sometimes living) hero—the 'unknown hero'. It is to be hoped that from this Competition and linked to the study of all the names suggested, people will start thinking what really does constitute a hero — or at least someone to be admired. The past can be a help in this. But the real task surely is for the education profession to think out what system or standard of values it is which will breed heroes by the million fit to live in the land of this global village. Why not? Or must heroes always by definition be in a vast minority? Florence Nightingale has now been repro-

duced all over the world. But her lamp still shines and nurses are underpaid. Is that just the last vestige of their heroic conception? These are the kind of questions the Competition has posed. It was a worthwhile project.

Patrick Armstrong.

* I am indebted to the Cement and Concrete Association for this acronym of Homo Sapiens; the Association has just made an excellent film pointing out how very often this species is to be found among civil engineers.

New English Fellowship CONFERENCE
at the University of York, Heslington, York. YO1 5DD, from Tuesday 28th July to Monday 3rd August 1970.

WEAVING EDUCATION INTO THE SOCIAL FABRIC

Two co-ordinated and inter-disciplinary WORKING PARTIES will approach this theme from complimentary points of view:

(1) THE PARTICIPATING COMMUNITY
(2) PERSONAL EDUCATION IN THE NEW SOCIETY

The Council of the ENEF invites to this Open Conference teachers in schools and in institutions for Further and Higher Education, along with members of the educational advisory, psychological, welfare and social services. Others interested, whether as parents or students, are also cordially invited.

A Brief on the Conference

Educationalists are today facing a new predicament. For years we have been talking about methods of education that more successfully foster personal development — self-confidence; the ability to think, feel, and act more creatively; an educated capacity for human relationships, social responsibility, imagination and vision.

All this time we have been taking society for granted and assuming that an adequate outlet for the human qualities promoted by better education would be found within society as it is. The new situation is that young people from many kinds of political systems — and by no means only young people — are saying, in one way or another: 'Society itself must be changed in many ways if the personal and social qualities developed by education are to be fulfilled in creative living.'

This is not a call for revolution in the old sense — a flocking to the banners to bring in some imagined Utopia — but for carefully thought-out social transformation in the service of a better quality of life which both encourages and needs a wider, more continuous participation of ordinary people in making the decisions that affect the future of society. From now on therefore, we have to consider the enhancement of education and of society as more closely inter-related than we have been accustomed to do in the past. We have both to seek to release through education the creative in people and to study what in society must be changed in order that the creativity developed in individuals may function without undue frustration.

It is this urgent contemporary perspective on education that will be explored in the coming conference.

James Hemming

The total charge for the week's residential conference and accommodation (including the college 10 per cent service charge and all amenities and extras) is £19, with a reduction of £1 for participants sharing a double room, and a further reduction of £1 for ENEF members.

Further details to be had and reservations may be made with the Hon. Secretary, Raymond King, ENEF office, 2 Wilton Grove, New Malden, Surrey. Telephone 01/942/6821.

Prejudice and the Teaching of History

taken from 'New Movements in the Study and Teaching of History' edited by Martin Ballard and to be published in October 1970 by Maurice Temple Smith Limited, 37 Great Russell Street, London, W.C.1.

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'What I think of Japs. I think of the Japanese as a race of people who can build small things like radions. But they can also build big boats like the world's largest tankers. Which is being built in Nip land. The truth is that I hate Japs.' 1st year mixed ability Secondary School.[1]

In 1952 a UNESCO pamphlet on 'History Textbooks and International Understanding' stated:—
'in our judgement, the attitude of schools to the teaching of history is the acid test of the sincerity of their faith in the growth of international understanding and consequently of their readiness to tackle this vast and crucial question'.[2]

Seventeen years later with religious conflict reawakened between Catholics and Protestants in Ulster, signs of renewed anti-semitism in Russia and Poland, race prejudice rampant in Wolverhampton and Leeds, Arabs and Israelis at each other's throats in the Middle East and Race rioting in the USA, the teacher of history must be depressed at the effectiveness of his role in helping children towards detachment and objectivity and helping reduce national as well as racial prejudice. For more than half a century teachers have been concerned with the elimination of prejudice from history teaching. After the 1st World War an enquiry into the fairness of textbooks to minority groups was begun in the United States. This was undertaken by those who wrote and used the books but the enquiry, however well-intentioned, was not very effective. The League of Nations also set up commissions to have nations examine each other's textbooks. The hopes of history teachers in

most countries were great: if only nations knew more of one another, if they understood each other's customs and ideosyncrasies, war would be outlawed by common consent. Unfortunately this scheme did not flourish except in Scandinavia.

Sad disillusionment came with the Second World War but even while it was going on schemes for removing national prejudice from books were again begun and since then with the help of UNESCO this work has continued and several important studies have emerged. 'History Without Bias?' issued by the Council of Christians and Jews in 1954[3] summarised the difficulties that came out of this examination of textbooks. The report concluded that the teaching of good human relationships may not be the primary concern of history teaching but that nevertheless many textbooks were likely to produce this result. Surveys of textbooks then in use however still suggested that in Britain at any rate they concentrated too much on the political and military aspects of life. The ruthless selection of material that was essential in textbook writing inevitably meant that some human groups had been ignored or neglected. Most history was still written from a predominantly British point of view and what seemed adequate to the majority could easily seem inadequate and humiliating to a minority group. Jews were no more likely to be satisfied with a history of Christ that ignored the cultural contribution of their civilisation any more than a Mohammedan would accept a view of the Crusades that hardly mentions the Islamic point of view.

This list could of course be extended; no two cultures are able to view each other satisfactorily. Professor Lévi Strauss[4] likens the process to two express trains that pass each other at speed. The amount of detail discernible depends on the speed of the trains. In 'Race and History' he writes 'men whose culture differs from our own are neither more nor less moral than ourselves; each society has its own moral standards by which it divides its members into good and evil'.

From an examination of the data of ethnography and history it seems that race prejudice is not universal and is of relatively recent origin. Alexander the Great married two Persian princesses and ten thousand of his soldiers married Hindus. The main interest the Romans had in their subject people was that they should pay their tribute, and when Christians persecuted their fellow men it was on the grounds that they were 'infidels' not because they belonged to another race. The Spanish Conquistadores did not mind if their men slept with the natives provided the women had been baptised first. Racism is neither hereditary nor spontaneous. It is a cultural value judgement which has no objective basis and which in our civilisation has its origins in the work of Gobinau, Chamberlain, the imperialism of the late 19th century and particularly in the nationalistic creed of National Socialism. Members of the UNESCO committee, the British Historical Association[5] and many English speaking teachers have become aware of the need for objectivity. Whenever we are up against vicious prejudice our 'liberal conscience' is outraged or at least troubled. In 'Hanoi' Mary McCarthy[6] witnessed a North Vietnamese history lesson where a battle against the French in the 1950's was the subject.

> " . . . it was too early to hope, obviously, that these embattled children could find in their heads a soft spot for De Lattre de Tassigny, still less for the inept General Navarre. History as taught by the French to the Vietnamese was bound to incite a spirit of revenge on the old French Empire textbooks. Mr Phan was fond of quoting, with a short acerbic laugh, from the first words of history he had to memorise as a boy: Nos ancêtres, les Gaulois . . . Still I was sorry to find that map on the blackboard. Beyond my personal array and regret at what appeared to be a kind of indigence (history was richer than those children knew), I was sensitive to the fact that this lesson would be regarded as sheer propaganda. 'They indoctrinate their school children' " (p. 84).

One wonders whether a lesson on the Battle of Britain in this country would be viewed with equal dismay. The instillation of direct prejudice through teaching is certainly unusual but it must be realised that prejudicial thinking can

play a constructive part in the way in which we perceive situations. 'Prejudice' is a loaded word and no one would like to be considered prejudiced, and yet if it helps us as a step towards understanding it can not be a fault entirely. In order to understand a situation or a problem we must first put it into some order in relation to other knowledge. This process is known as 'stereotyping' and this is part of the formation of prejudiced thinking in the 'bad' sense but its useful function in the process of understanding new ideas and situations must be remembered. Because having achieved a perspective we can then proceed from this to make predictions or to make decisions to find out more or to go on to something else.

To combat prejudice which operates in the harmful and limiting way it is not sufficient to provide more accurate information about the stereotype; prejudice in the teaching of history lies much deeper and operates on an unconscious level. No committee of 'good and true men' will do much more than eliminate obvious bias or search for it with care until it comes to the expression on the drawing of George Washington's face.[7] The attention must be directed in new ways: in the first place we must find out how the child receives information. Does the history teacher in fact create prejudice by his very tender-mindedness,[8] or does his work turn out to be quite irrelevant to the development of the child's view of his world? Like the textbook committees, teachers may perhaps have set themselves tasks which are quite beyond them. Alternatively the questions to which no answers have so far been found may need to be asked differently. In the social sciences similar concerns have been expressed and Muzafer Sherif takes them to task for their myopic approach. 'The typical research design has been constructed largely in terms of tradition or the researcher's convenience . . . A proper framework for the study of intergroup work is imperative today'.[9] Historians are primarily concerned with group interaction and conflict. They use a different frame of reference and attempt to see a problem as a whole, while the social psychologist tends to isolate a problem in order to have a situation that can be controlled and isolated.

In the field of curriculum development the social scientist can be enormously useful all the same. One would like to know from him whether there is any evidence to show how children become prejudiced, when they begin to operate in terms of national stereotypes, where they pick up ideas and whether their social class has any bearing on the criteria they use when they accept or reject information.

Here is an example taken from a child at a local comprehensive school. It illustrates the point that there are reservoirs of prejudice totally unaffected by the broadly liberal education that was provided in the school.

> 5th year boy: Frenchmen are lazy, just music and wine all day long. From morning to night they sit in cafes doing ———— all. Admittedly some work but from what I have seen they are lazey very lazey. All this gear about romance is a load of bull, and in my opinion there are very few cases of romantic frenchmen. The women are all right, but most are scruffy and dirty. All they think about is lesure and plesure.

It seems worth noting that after years of schooling so little has happened to change his outlook. The impact of French, geography, history and civics has not left much of a mark on him though he seems to have visited France.

As Toynbee pointed out in his 'Study of History'[10] that the Emperor Ch'ien Lung showed that same ego-centric illusion which we now meet in the West. Different cultures approach each other with identical intellectual assumptions. When the Spaniards arrived in America they killed two natives to see if they had mortal souls. The Indians for their part drowned some Spaniards to see if they were gods or would decompose like ordinary mortals. There is a Western assumption of superiority, not unjustified in terms of technological progress, that Western culture is synonymous with civilisation and merits greater consideration than the cultures of foreigners, savages or barbarians. If we look at the majority of syllabuses there is some acknowledgement of the debt

to classical civilisations and where World History is taught there is some mention even of India, China, Japan and pre-Columbian America. What is so much harder to get across even to adults is that people little advanced technologically and with no written language, — the races of Africa, the Melanesians and Polynesians, the modern Indians of South and North America and the Eskimoes — nevertheless have their own civilisations, cultures which have shown powers of expansion although at this moment this power has been lost.[11] Even when teachers are aware of all this they are still faced with the problem of communicating it to the 3rd year isolationist who wrote: 'I don't think anything about the Chinese. I never will have nothing to say about them . . . or ever have said anything about them . . . one thing about the Chinese every one of them has the same colour hair (well nearly everyone). Chinese boys are not as handsome as English boys.'

It is unlikely that the compound of beliefs, value judgements and emotions springs out of the children's minds spontaneously; it is the result of growth as much as the formation of concepts and moral judgements that Piaget has written about. To children below a certain age terms such as 'Chinese' or 'French' represent a complex level of abstraction. When other races or nations are mentioned it is not just a question of the manipulation of an abstraction but also of an infusion of strongly held value judgements. Even when there is a real contact, as with a school visit to a foreign country, both host and visitor, isolated by social and linguistic factors, will be reduced to stereotyped opinions of one another.

In 'New Society.' (30.6.66) Professor Tajfel shows that preference for a particular nation begins early in the child's life. Children of the age 6-7 and 9-11 were presented individually with a set of twenty specially prepared and standardised photographs of young men, all English. The children were asked to decide whether they liked the person on the picture. A fortnight later they were told, when presented with the same photographs that some were foreigners and were asked to say who they thought the foreigners were. The analysis of the data, which included controls and several complex mutations, showed that there was a significant tendency for children to 'like better' those people to whom they assigned the category 'English'; similar results showing preference for their own kind emerged in Austria, Belgium, Holland and Israel. Young children are certainly enormously chauvinistic and as they become older they begin to develop a stereotype of their own national group. From there Professor Tajfel proceeds to the conclusion that children 'assimilated very early the generally accepted value judgements about salient foreign countries, that this happens in almost complete absence of any factual information about these countries, and that their own national membership acquires just as early (if not earlier) an emotional significance which can trigger off a whole set of responses.' Professor Tajfel's conclusion of the article is of special interest to teachers of history. 'Thinking about large human groups in a rational and adequate manner is a complex intellectual achievement made even more difficult by the early intervention of biases.'

In schools we allow children to develop these complex emotional skills almost by accident and, as the examples of children's views of foreigners quoted above show, the teaching these children have received has done little or nothing to modify their views. Indeed it would seem that a history syllabus that is entirely centred on British History will only reinforce these ethnocentric attitudes and foreigners who only appear on the scene to be defeated, enslaved and exploited for the glory of one's own group will hardly be seen more tolerently when encountered in another context. If the subject does range beyond the British people in our schools we concentrate almost entirely on Western/Christian civilisations and on the activities of the Caucasian racial group. This will produce a view of history that does less than justice to other civilisations.

Like feelings of national preference we must also look at attitudes to race because brown or yellow skin and unusually shaped eyes will evoke even deeper feelings than different language and sometimes only vaguely perceptible differences in looks. According to D.

Milner[12] racial attitudes develop from infancy until the early teens and then become more intense and sophisticated. In view of the fact that an increasing number of coloured immigrant children are going to be absorbed in our secondary schools it is important to note that psychological damage is inflicted on those at the receiving end of racial prejudice. White children invariably prefer the white group and reject the coloured out-group. This has been found to be so in studies conducted in the United States, New Zealand and the United Kingdom. In these studies white children rejected coloured dolls — 'he's black, he's a stinky little boy'; 'he kills people'. While these attitudes may be regrettable they are not thought to be damaging to the child himself. But what of the coloured child who also rejected the coloured doll? and the Navaho Indian children who were watching a western film and were reported to be cheering for the Cowboys! Moorland (1966) showed 3-6 year old negro children black and white dolls and asked 'which one looks most like you?' and over 50% of the children indicated the white doll. These children had demonstrated the ability to recognise racial differences and Milner comes to the conclusion that minorities suffering prejudice and discrimination in every sphere of life will produce children who reject their true identity and who aspire to the unattainable white one. He concludes that 'education has a crucial role to play in stemming the flow of racial prejudice and stereotyping from parents to children; educational material itself is not free from implicit and explicit racial attitudes and the teacher's contribution to eliminating all such determinants of prejudice will be decisive'.

Nicholas Johnson in New Society (7.7.66) explores another area where the seeds of prejudice are sown: the war comic. 'How is it that primary schoolchildren have come to agree about the relative merits of various countries? Who tells them that England, Australia, America and France are to be liked while Russia, China, Germany and India are to be disliked? The answer must lie largely in what parents, teachers and other adults tell the children.' When he examines comics Johnson concludes that they are a powerful source of nationalistic references. Not only is there 'name calling' such as Jerry, Nip, Kraut, Hun, but killing is introduced in such a way that it seems sanctioned and justifiable. The Heroes are usually British, but sometimes include New Zealanders (Kiwis) and Australians and the enemy is described either by the comic or the British character as 'deadly and fanatical', 'Lousy stinking rats, scum etc.', 'swine or slit-eyed killers' and among the ethical propositions put forward are 'these Japs ain't human beings' and 'the only good Germans are dead ones'. There is anti-communist propaganda in American war comics: 'so we cured our Commie neighbours of their dirty little habits'. East Germany has become the area which conveniently combines the hate potential of Communism and Nazism. Apart from Johnson's interesting information on the image of war presented (perpetual, non-ideological, the sanctioning of death and violence, bullets without their real effect) it is important to look at the conclusions of his experimental work, since there is evidence that attitudes are partly caused by the material children read and that the effect of reading war comics on young children is of some importance and may also be long lasting.

Three points emerge from the work of Tajfel, Milner and Johnson: children already have attitudes towards other nationalities before they come to secondary schools. Racial discrimination and self-hate of coloured minorities begins early. Comics supply information to their readers which influence their preference for other nations. By the time the history teacher comes on the scene he is dealing with pupils who already have racial and nationalistic attitudes and what happens in schools does not necessarily modify previously held views. Can it be asserted that our history teaching actually increases prejudice, or that it reinforces previously held views? It is difficult to make a convincing claim without specific research in this area; the best one can do is carefully to re-examine our history curriculum from this point of view. Perhaps the very ineffectiveness of most teaching is a form of protection. If it had more impact there might be more reaction both from parents and authorities. We know that after generations of

compulsory religious education the Church of England still loses its hold over the majority of adults in this country. If, as we suspect, the children who come to secondary schools are already full of prejudiced ideas about foreigners could the teacher not perform a useful function and use the mental processes that make the children see all the French as 'Frogs' and all coloured people as 'Wogs'? This could be the starting point and the teacher could go on from there to give out detailed information which will make the previous over-simplification seem silly and inadequate to the children. A great deal of history taught is narrative rather than analytical and controversy is far too often avoided for fear of 'indoctrinating' children. Too often the connections that ought to be made are left to the children who are intellectually unable to make them. Is it enough to tell pupils of the dropping of the A-bomb on Hiroshima or should there be discussion of the decision and how it came to be made? or should we go on to the problem of killing as a moral duty? The children's capacity to cope with arguments of this sort presents peculiar difficulties. At one stage they can only cope with narrative, later they can be more objective and can sort out an argument into stages and can test facts against opinions. The work done on children's sense of time and their formation of historical concepts[13] indicate times when some of the children can no more understand what the teacher or the book is telling them than a colour-blind person can tell red from green. It is relatively easy to explore concept formation when the experimenter deals with neutral terms such as 'ruler', 'nation' or 'trade'. When it comes to prejudiced views, so many factors are at work that it must be much more difficult to isolate them, particularly as fashion in prejudice changes. Text book revision, which has been discussed before, only touches one aspect of the problem and when we wish to reconsider the very basis of the history curriculum we must begin by asking at what age children can begin to understand the points of view and values of another civilisation. The fact that a certain culture has declined, or has ever been destroyed, is the equivalent of saying that it has failed. The inter-relation of cultures is not often made clear enough. Again children are great 'time snobs' — what is new must inevitably be better and if another civilisation failed to explore the potential of steam or has no television it must be a less valuable civilisation than our own. At the moment if we begin with the stone age and end up with the present (more likely in the middle of the 19th century if the teacher plods through the suggested syllabus conscientiously) we have, unconsciously, set up a hierarchy because to children the most modern is best. If we draw on other cultures only incidentally we also devalue their achievements and importance: America only begins to exist when Columbus discovers it, the Australasian tribes only function to provide Cook with supplies and the Indians emerge when they are to be defeated by Clive and later when they dare to mutiny. Often there is an element of surprise that others have achieved anything. The fact that the Chinese had the compass and gunpowder and the Incas a road system is thought to be a quaint accident that pre-empted European technology.

This is not the conventional jingoism that may be on its way out but a lack of objectivity that will ultimately lead to an inability to evaluate the nature of other cultures and civilisations. This kind of objectivity will not be provided by many of the homes or the mass madia so the teacher will have to give some attention to the matter. Recent educational literature indicates that working class children benefit less from their secondary education than middle class children because they feel uninvolved in a school system that upholds the values of a class not their own.[14] Do children only want to hear about the transactions of the nobility and the professional classes with 'the great unwashed masses' only providing a background? We present history to working class children as we do to immigrants as if they were no more than a minority group and it would pay us to consider the feelings of these groups. If young immigrants despise the image they have of themselves, how will they feel if they are confronted with accounts of their civilisation that only show them as objects of conquest, exploitation or equally humiliating 'reform'? In a sense we are using other civilisations and cultures to boost our own and this

must be harmful.

What can be done? There is enough evidence to show that a new look at prejudice is called for and that this in turn should change our way of teaching history in schools. We might look at another civilisation using the methods of the anthropologist rather than the historian. Bruner suggests the study of the Eskimoes.[15] It may be possible to examine a society without placing it either above or below the value scales of the children. Secondly wars might be studied not only as events in which 'we' fought 'them' but as examples of human conflict, also showing that there are ways of resolving conflict other than war and this might take the form of case studies and games rather than textbook excercises[16] and [9 op. cit.] Thirdly: objectivity comes late in the mental development of children and no one, not even 'nice liberals' are without prejudice. It is therefore better to allow children's prejudice to emerge openly than to supress it by condemnation or the pretence that it does not exist. Prejudice should be the starting point; find out what the children feel about the 'Japs' or the 'Wogs' and then produce information that undermines the stereotype. If this work is done with fervour and indignation rather than cool detachment there will be a backlash and nothing will be gained. Prejudice consists of a complex of attitudes and beliefs and it will never just disappear. It would be facile to suggest only a few practical tips to deal with it; a complete re-examination of the history we teach to children needs to be undertaken and we must try to learn how we can teach objectivity in schools in the face of so many other powerful factors.

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Who's Who?

BRIAN SCOTT-HUGHES

Brian Scott-Hughes is at present following the Graduate Certificate in Education Course. He has taught for 6 years, 5 of which were spent in a Montessori school. He has lectured on Montessori in this country and in America, with the aim of dispelling the ideological associations of Montessori, by showing its practical relevance to education today. He is married with 2 young children.

See July/August issue for four articles about nursery education in Manchester, team teaching in infant and in junior schools and special educational provision for immigrants all from Manchester and one article from Banff.

Prejudice in Children

A Study on Social Communication

Lamberto Borghi

I

Dealing with the problem of prejudice we must be aware of the fact that our concern is with the total problem of education. I consider it to be universally accepted that a prejudiced attitude, as an American social psychologist made it clear, implies a departure from three ideal norms, the norm of rationality, the norm of justice, and what he called the norm of 'human-heartedness'.[1] Briefly, prejudice affects the entire personality, hinders its development in the intellectual, social, and emotional aspects. Since the task of education is to secure all-round personal growth, its attainment is made impossible in prejudiced or prone to prejudice individuals. Therefore, the consideration of the causes of prejudice and the study of the proper ways of its removal both as a tendency and as an actual behavioral condition in individuals and groups are part and parcel of the educational enterprise.

It has been widely debated whether prejudice is societal or personal. Gordon W. Allport, who devoted much attention to this problem, while giving serious recognition to the importance of the 'societal argument', stated very clearly that 'between the external social forces and the overt behavior upon which our critics fix their attention, there lies, inevitably and forever, the mediation of single and definable personalities. Without them social forces would be mere phantasms'.[2] He concluded his analysis of the causation of prejudice with the admission that 'a full scientific explanation requires that proximal as well as distal causes be included in final accounting', although 'the proximal cause still lies within personality'.

Both Allport and the authors of **The Authoritarian Personality,** a work that has probably given the most important contribution so far to the study of prejudice, have introduced a distinction between a superficial type of prejudice, in which unfavorable attitudes toward 'out groups' are to be accounted to behavior by conformity, and a deeply rooted prejudice, which has become inscribed in character structure, and is responsible for what is called 'the authoritarian personality'. There is also a rather large similarity of opinion among them about the fact that the authoritarian personality, has its roots in the events of the first years of life. Allport expressed this view with some caution, saying that 'we do not yet know for certain — though these studies strongly imply it — that early childhood training is responsible. Indications are that harsh and capricious discipline, affectional deprivation, feelings of rejection, may underlie the character-structure thus formed'.[3] He did not totally discard, however, the hypothesis 'of a constitutional bent toward rigidity', adding that 'concerning this important matter we know absolutely nothing'.

The authors of 'The Authoritarian Personality' were more outspoken in their attributing a major responsibility for the birth of that type of personality to family and social factors. 'Personality', they stated in the Introduction to their work, 'evolves under the impact of social environment and can never be isolated from the social totality within which it occurs'. Deriving strong suggestions from psychoanalysis for their interpretation of the roots of the authoritarian personality, they added that 'according to the present theory, the effects of environmental forces in moulding the personality are, in general, the more profound the earlier in the life history of the individual they are brought to bear'. The major influences upon personality development arise in the course of child training as carried forward in a setting of family life'. However family life is not an island in social life. What happens within the family is closely tied up to social conditions and 'is profoundly influenced by economic and social factors'. Therefore, 'broad changes in social conditions and institutions will have a direct bearing upon the kind of personalities that develop within a society'.[4]

Some years after the publication of **'The Authoritarian Personality,** Max Horkheimer

and Theodor W. Adorno in their **Soziologische Exkurse** (1956), summarizing hypotheses, procedures, and results of that major study, declared that 'it had made clear that totalitarian characters have often suffered gravely in their infancy either owing to a rigid father or for lack of affection in general, and they repeat what they had to suffer time ago, in order to be able to stand morally'.[5] They insisted, however, on the idea already expressed in their former work that the existence of characters free from prejudice and characters affected by prejudice has its main source in the 'cultural climate', nowadays prevailing all over the world. They attributed the growing dissemination of rigid and 'ticket-thinking' to 'the process of mechanization and bureaucratization', which, they thought, demands of those who are submitted to it a new type of conformity'. In order to face the demands that arise from all aspects of life they must to a certain extent mechanize and standardize themselves'. Under these conditions, the two authors remarked, 'only those would be really free men who offer resistance a priori to the processes and influences that predispose to prejudice'. Such resistance to the 'cultural climate' is, however, so difficult, they concluded, that 'absence of prejudice would need an explanation much more than its formation'.

However pessimistic the diagnosis of prejudice in our time, Horkheimer and Adorno were not ready to renounce fighting against this major obstacle to the free development of individuals and society. Although they recognized that a merely rational understanding of the deep personal and social causes of prejudice could not provide the key to the solution of its problem, such a scientific knowledge would offer very important contribution to it. Objective information and scientific teaching in schools 'might be practical measures of struggle against the danger of the madness of totalitarian masses'.

The stress put by Horkheimer and Adorno on the contribution that education can offer to the fight against prejudice through the development of reflective thinking and the introduction of scientific methods in teaching calls the attention of teachers on an important task that they only are able to perform in an attempt to remove some of the obstacles that hinder the intellectual growth of their pupils. The prevention of stereotyped and rigid thinking may be helped by new methods of instruction which are advocated and practiced in many schools today. The idea is now widespread that the main task of teachers is not so much to provide ready-made knowledge for pupils, but to help them 'to learn how to learn'. Productive thinking is the one which comes out of genuine experience, whose problems it helps to solve by using the 'hypothetical mode' in which students and teachers effectively co-operate. This approach to the cognitive process which indentifies it with the 'heuristics of discovery' allows the child, as Jerome S. Bruner put it, 'to carry out his learning activities with the autonomy of self-reward or, more properly, by reward that is discovery itself'.[6]

This intervention of education and school, according to their own intrinsic character and aims, in the fight against prejudice would hardly yield positive results, if it were operated in isolation from the emotional and social areas of the students' behavior.

In fact prejudice is primarily an emotional and social attitude, implying, as Gordon Allport defined it, 'an antipathy' toward a group as a whole or toward an individual because he is a member of that group; an antipathy 'based upon a faulty and inflexible generalization'.[7] I would say that the intellectual side of prejudice is derivative, though it is an essential and important component of it. Through stereotyped thinking the prejudiced individual tries to 'rationalize' his feelings of rejection of 'out groups'. Aggressive and destructive trends within the individual form the core of prejudice. They are the outcome of lack of positive interpersonal relationships from early infancy, which the individual tries to master through such mechanisms of defense as displacement, projection, and generalization. Feelings, which are the psychic effects of human relations, precede any attempt to justify their nature and scope. Allport quoted the New Oxford Dictionary defining prejudice 'a feel-

ing, favorable or unfavorable, toward any person or thing, prior to or not based on actual experience'. Adorno and Horkheimer themselves, in their description of individuals bent toward prejudice stated that the latter are 'deeply wounded persons, prisoners of their weakened ego, unable to grasp anything which goes beyond their limited personal interest or that of their group'. Having been exposed to severe deprivations of love during their first years of life, these individuals are dominated by 'an unconscious desire of destruction'. Hence, the two Authors went on, 'one can explain their absence of relations with other people, the superficiality of their feelings even toward persons who are externally very close to them'. In order to modify their behavior, instruction would not suffice. 'What would be needed first is to form or re-establish within them, through long and tiring processes, the capacity of spontaneous and vital relationships with men and things'.

The basic emotional and social nature of prejudice has been recognized by contemporary psychology in contrast with the interpretation of prejudice by the writers of the 18th Century, who stressed, as did Voltaire in his 'Philosophical Dictionary', the intellectual nature of prejudice. In this vein Voltaire defined prejudice 'une opinion sans jugement', adding: 'Ainsi dans toute la terre on inspire aux enfants toutes les opinions qu'on veut, avant qu'ils puissent juger'.[8]

Thus, while the battle against prejudice was to be fought, according to the leaders of Enlightenment, essentially in the field of intellectual education, according to contemporary psychological and educational theory its remedy to it has to be found primarily in the satisfaction of the emotional and social needs of children. **'Prejudice',** Allport pointed out, **'is greater whenever there are severe barriers to communication between groups.** This law has as its reciprocal the law of contact: prejudice lessens whenever there is equal-status contact between members of groups in the pursuit of common objectives'.[9]

In the light of this general attitude toward the problems of education and re-education, it is important to express our concern about the trend that has been gaining ground during the past decade in the industrial countries in different continents within the area of primary education. The explosion of knowledge, which is one of the most outstanding facts of our time, has deeply affected school reformers and teachers not only in the Soviet Union and in the United States, but also in most of the other countries. A shift has become apparent in the educational process from the attention and care previously given to the formation of well balanced personalities in pupils to devotion of special attention to the increase of knowledge. This change has been partly caused by the one-sided emphasis put by some quarters of progressive education on the social formation of children, thus neglecting their intellectual development. But well-known political events have also been responsible for this change. Schools nowadays incur the risk of becoming involved in the war policy of states and governments. The knowledge industry has appeared in many cases as an outcome of war industry.

While recognizing the importance of the demand that schools and teachers pay increasing attention to the growth of the learning abilities of pupils, a unilateral use of this demand would prove in the long run to be detrimental for the education of youth in our age.

In a recent article on 'The purposes of futurologic studies in education', Torsten Husén reported some results of an attitude survey published by the Swedish Board of Education and other studies on value orientations conducted by American investigators. Analysing the taped proceedings of a conference of a group of high school students responsible for 'underground' school newspapers, Husén remarked that these pupils 'consider themselves 'manipulated', with the school acting as a propaganda machine'. He quoted one of these students saying: 'The school system has become an efficient factory in which we are the raw material, who under the pressure of the marking system are turned into automatons and conformists for sale to the highest bidders in the business world', and still another say-

ing: 'what I want more than anything else in the school is the interaction between ideas and feelings, and not just neutral, gray knowledge. I want us to get accustomed to people trying to convince us about things'. In his comment to these statements of students, Husén remarked that those who attempt to design 'comprehensive' future alternatives ought to take into serious consideration the trends developing among young people, and that to that aim 'two fundamental conditions' should be observed, namely, that '(1) We regard education as an integrated system, which means we do not confine ourselves to the school-type subsystems in the conventional sense; and (2) we view the educational system in its social, economic, and political context'.[10]

I wish to submit that this broader view of education is needed not only to devise future developments of school organization and teaching practices, but also to take position in face of present problems.

Consideration of school as closely linked to social and political reality and as a part of the larger cultural sub-system of our society is already a working ground for contemporary theories of learning and research projects concerning social and educational attitudes of children and youth in many countries.

As far as learning theories, may I limit myself to underline the fact that some of the most important authors in the field, both in the Soviet Union and the United States, have insisted upon the social motivation and foundation of the learning processes. Jerome S. Bruner, whose insistence on knowledge and intellectual life as 'the most his own' in man's perfections is the characteristic of his educational position, declared himself in agreement with the Russian psychologist L. S. Vygotsky in the latter's consideration of 'the growth of thought processes as starting with a dialogue of speech and gesture between parent and child', and of the beginning of autonomous thinking 'at the stage when the child is first able to internalize these conversations and "run them off" himself'. The same process takes place in school, where a further development of the capacity of thinking in pupils is best secured 'by encouraging the child to participate in speaker's decisions'.[11]

Bruner himself in his book **Toward A Theory of Instruction** indicated what he called 'the motivation of reciprocity' as 'an important intrinsic motivation, which has a direct bearing on the will to learn'. He pointed out that 'reciprocity seems to find in itself, in its own manifestation, its own reward'. Bruner added that 'probably this way of answering to other members of the same species on the basis of reciprocity represents the foundation of human society'. 'The body of learning', he went on saying, 'using this expression as synonymous with knowledge, is reciprocal'. Bruner remarked that 'our educational system has remained strangely blind to this interdependent nature of knowledge. We have 'pupils' and 'teachers', 'experts' and 'unskilled', but community of learning is somewhat ignored'.[12]

II

The foregoing general remarks about the nature of prejudice have led us to the belief that paucity or absence of communication in the family between child and parents, in the school between pupil and teacher and between pupils themselves, in addition to separation of family and school from community life, are responsible for unfavorable ethnic attitudes in children.

The hypothesis, resulting from the major assumptions regarding prejudice which have been summarized in the preceding pages, that a correlation exists between prejudice and social communication has been the starting point of some studies which have been carried out by the Institute of Education of the University of Florence during the past few years.

A first study[13] was completed in 1967, in an attempt to obtain some empirical evidence of the validity of that hypothesis, on children of the last form of the primary school (whose age is between 10 and 11) and of the three forms of junior secondary school (whose age is between 11 and 14). During the following years

another study has been conducted on students of senior secondary schools in Florence and Bari whose results have been published in April 1970.[14] Both studies have been sponsored by the National Council for Research.

I will offer a short description of the first of these two studies.

The sample consisted of 114 boys and girls in three different communities, one in North Italy (Borgofranco, near Torino), one in the Center (Grassina, near Firenze), and the third in the South (Pozzuoli, near Napoli). These children attended the primary and junior secondary schools in their communities. It must be noted that a few of these children were older than 14, reaching the 16th year of age. Interviews were effected with 201 adults in the same communities, being the fathers and mothers of these children.

The construction of a questionnaire with the view of obtaining information about sex, age, socio-economic conditions of pupils, composition of family, and the way they experienced communication within the family, the school, and informal groups with their friends was the first task of the équipe following the formulation of the hypothesis. A study of the three communities was effected aiming to ascertain differences and similarities as far as culture, social life, economic conditions and school facilities.

The measurement of prejudice was made by the use of the Bogardus Social Distance Scale and other proper instruments like the Adjectives Check List among which pupils were invited to choose those, if any, which they deemed to correspond to qualities attributed to different ethnic groups.

Another variable was also introduced in the questionnaire which appeared to be worth investigating in order to identify and measure the latent personality tendencies to prejudice. To this effect an authoritarianism scale was constructed on the basis of the F Scale devised by the Berkeley Group.

All these instruments were externally validated before being administered to the chosen sample of pupils in the three communities. The data collected from 114 pupils and 201 parents were inter-correlated and factor analyzed.

The following general results were obtained. A slight difference was observed in the family structure of the three communities. Of the three types of family organization which exist in the three communities, the extended traditional family, where parents and children live together with other relatives, the nuclear family, where only parents and children live together, and an intermediate type of family between the former two ones, families in the Tuscan town of Grassina are equally devided into all the three mentioned types; while in the Northern town of Borgofrance and in the Southern town of Pozzuoli nuclear families prevail. The number of children is, however, greater in Pozzuoli and Borgofrance than in Grassina, large families, thus, amounting to 65% in Pozzuoli, 49% in Bortofranco, and 33% in Grassina.

From the interviews with adults in the three communities, they appeared to have maintained some mental attitudes which are typical of the extended family, irrespective of its diminishing objective relevance. A majority of parents declared that about family affairs they are the only ones who make decisions, without any collaboration on the part of their children. This authoritarian character has been revealed by 79% of families in Borgofranco, 71% in Pozzuoli, 59% in Grassina. Family life has a rather secluded character, if one excepts relationships with neighbors. Such relationships have been described as continuous by 86% of the couples in Borgofranco, 85% in Grassina, and 70% in Pozzuoli. One of the questions put to parents was directed to ascertain the degree of permissiveness of parents toward their children in nine important areas, like inviting friends at home for study, play, and watching TV; being invited by friends in the latters' home; attending recreational, religious, and sport associations; choosing their own friends; having friends of the other sex; not going to church; etc. The community in Grassina has emerged as the

ones where parents have a more permissive attitude toward their children. 60% of parents in Pozzuoli, 52% in Borgofranco, 46% in Grassina would not allow their children to make an autonomous decision in 2 of the 9 areas. The relative isolation of family life in the three communities is indicated by participation of parents to social institutions which exist there. Non participant have declared to be 71% of parents in Pozzuoli, 69% in Borgofranco, 49% in Grassina.

Perception of family atmosphere on the part of children has appeared to be in agreement with the results of interviews with parents. Children declared that activities performed by their fathers at home ranked higher in the individual than in the co-operative type; co-operative activities amounting to 5% in Borgofranco, 9% in Pozzuoli, 20% in Grassina.

Parents in the three communities talk with children especially about matters pertaining to school, health, and behavior; and in a much lesser degree about problems of children's life, like their friendships, use of leisure time, family and daily affairs.

Communication at school has emerged from the children's answers to the questionnaire to be scarcely higher than communication as perceived by them in the family. Small group work and conversations with teachers have a much smaller place than traditional ex-cathedra lessons by teachers. When groups are formed, responsibility for their formation has been attributed to teachers themselves by 71% of pupils in Pozzuoli, 66% in Borgofranco 50% in Grassina. During teachers' lessons pupils are allowed to ask questions in a different measure in the three communities. In Grassina 89% of pupils declared that this responsibility existed in their class; 86% in Pozzuoli, 69% in Borgofranco.

The answers of children to the part of the questionnaire aiming to measure the degree of communication in family and school revealed a transition from old patterns of behavior to new ones. Liberal demands put pressure on traditional authoritarianism. This pressure, however, appears to be still rather weak. The school rather than contributing to lessen the authoritarian structure of the family, strengthens its hold on children. School rotates around family rather than family around school. Under these circumstances the attitude toward prejudice revealed by pupils and adults in the three communities causes no surprise.

Implicit authoritarian personality trends, which the Authoritarianism Scale was intended to measure, appeared to be rather high in all three groups. The percentage of subjects with a high prejudice attitude amounted to one-third of parents in Grassina and Borgofranco, reaching about one half of adults in Pozzuoli. It is worth noting that among the youth in all three communities implicit authoritarian trends have been found lower from 2 to 5 points than those of their parents. The percentage of both parents and youth with the highest potentiality of authoritarian trends was found in the community of Pozzuoli.

The same remarks prove valid as far as actual states of prejudice, as indicated by the answers to the Borgardus Social Distance Scale and the Adjectives Check List. In Grassina the percentage of prejudiced answers by children amounted to 11.3%, as compared to 15.2% in Borgofranco, and 30.7% in Pozzuoli. Prejudiced answers by parents reached 22% in Grassina, 14.5% in Borgofranco, 34.9% in Pozzuoli.

Turning to one of the most crucial areas of rejection, prejudice against the Jews, the following remarks can be made. The youth population score as follows: Borgofranco: 10%; Grassina: 14%; Pozzuoli: 40%. Average percentage rejection of Jews by adults were found as follows: Borgofranco: 16%; Grassina 26.5%; Pozzuoli 58%.

These average percentage rejections of Jews in Italy can be compared to those which resulted from a study conducted in the early Sixties by Professor Melvin Tumin in Germany, France and England. Analyzing the answers given by a carefully chosen sample of young and adults to the Bogardus Social Distance Scale, he remarked that 'roughly between 30

to 35 per cent of the population of these three countries reject Jews in one or more contexts, contexts that are the essence of daily relationships, where Jews and non-Jews meet: neighborhoods, schools, shops and offices, social gatherings. The situation in the three Italian communities, although it is relative to a more limited section of Italy, does not differ greatly from that found by Tumin in the other three countries of Western Europe. Considering the average tendencies in these countries, Tumin remarked that the 'Average percentage Rejections, by Scale Category' were the following:

Adults:		
Germany	28	
England	23	
France	24	
Youth:		
Germany	26	
England	23	
France	21	(15)

According to the Italian study the average percentage rejections roughly amounted to 33% among adults, and to 21% among youth. Only in the Southern community of Pozzuoli the average percentage rejections of Jews have come out to be much higher than the average European ones, amounting to 60% in Fathers; 52% in Mothers; 40% in Children; i.e. to 50.2% in the total sample of subjects. These results may be explained in part by the social attitudes of the adults in Pozzuoli. The sample of that population which has been interviewed revealed a greater degree of seclusiveness than that found in the other two communities with less continuous relationships with neighbors and a lesser degree of permissiveness of parents toward their children. Participation to social institutions in the community has also appeared to be lesser in Pozzuoli than in the other two communties.

These remarks may offer some evidence of the validity of the hypothesis of the study with regard to the existence of a correlation between prejudice and social communication.

The study revealed in Pozzuoli a rather high correlation (%=40) between the low degree of communication of parents with neighbors and their conventionalism, an important variable in the Authoritarianism Scale.

A correlation of 0.30 between prejudice and social communication has globally been found in the three communities. This correlation, though not impressive, is rather consistent, and is evidential of the existence of a reliable association between the two broad areas of the hypothesis.

In conclusion, it is possible to state that the study of prejudice as a function of social communication has already yielded positive results. If further investigations will give additional evidence to the hypothesis, the efforts which during the past decades progressive educators have made to foster better human relations in communities and schools will prove to have been an important feature in the education advance in our time. A new insight will be obtained into the inner relations existing between the social experience of children and their learning processes. The problem of coordination of these two essential areas of human personality through proper educational devices may come out to appear one of the most important that teachers and schools will be called upon to solve in the coming period of time.

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A personal view of Montessori Principles

Carmen Bazley*

As a schoolgirl (at the Lycée Francais in London) the desire was born in me to search for the similarities between human beings all over the world, to prove the existence of 'fundamental man' as I called this concept. This may have been the strongest affinity which drew me to the philosophy and work of Maria Montessori.

What was it like to be a woman, an Italian, the first Italian woman doctor in 1900? To study backward children and work with them so successfully that some of their examination results equalled those of normal children? Her grasp of reality must have been very great to achieve all this, and may explain her reaction, 'if retarded children can do as well as the normal, there must be better ways of educating the normal children', and her subsequent entry into the field of education to search for these improvements.

The scene was set: a roomful of slum children, a few toys and odds and ends, a caretaker's daughter with no teacher training course behind her but a kind heart and some skill in dealing with children without resort to physical violence; an intelligent, sensitive, trained medical observer, seeking intuitively to grasp the many aspects of the children's activities, really to **see** what was taking place rather than look at it with preconceived ideas . . .

The apparent chaos gradually became meaningful. Children were not merely destructive or apathetic, merely little animals to be physically and morally restrained if they were to be made fit for adult society. There was unexpected evidence of concentration, which lengthened daily; a love of order; patience, self-control and self-discipline; an insatiable and irresistible desire to learn at the physical, intellectual, emotional and even spiritual levels.

This daily observation engendered the first principles of Maria Montessori's approach to education:

1. Respect for the child as a human being with hitherto unsuspected qualities and potentialities. (Recent research in America and elsewhere has shown that children tend to live up **or down** to their teacher's expectations and we may still be far from being able to open our adult, finite, minds sufficiently to allow for the expansion of the image we hold knowlingly or otherwise, of the heights and depths of childhood capability at different age levels — see article in Scientific American, Summer 1968.)

2. A prepared environment (since then experimentally tested and re-tested by each generation of teachers, with the usually few individual additions and subtractions found necessary.) 'The principle which we are trying to emphasize is the following: **that the mind should be connected with reality** and that such connection **is the fundamental basis not only of menal health but also of mental development** . . . What we have to foster in our Houses of Children is the co-ordinated movement of body and mind in contact with reality . . . '[1]

3. Love — (undemanding!) — admiration, compassion, tolerance and patience towards the children (and yourself, as teacher) in the joint venture of learning about the world and the role of a human being in it. In the words of Robert Ardrey,[2] in a recent interview 'Every society must have enough order so that the individual can survive. But it must also have enough disorder so that the individual can develop in his own way: do his own thing, if you like!'

4. Indirect preparation towards the acquisition of skills, e.g. tiny knobs on the cylinders to strengthen fingers for holding a pencil;

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walking or skipping around an oval to increase muscular co-ordination. The aim being, so to prepare a child that the different abilities required for the 3 R's, amongst other academic subjects, are present **before** the child needs to bring them together to train for a new skill. He is thus saved from losing 'face', or courage or both.

5. A lot of Montessori apparatus is **self-corrective** or depends on a Control of Error. This too, avoids the necessity of 'correction' by the teacher, losing face and above all, forcing the child to stand outside itself in the role of critic, instead of continuing to function as a whole being (as does an artist or scientist in the moment of creative work.) The secret of a successful Montessori environment is perhaps mainly this, that **it enables the child to function totally as a creative being,** according to its **periods of sensitivity,**[3] unhampered by the obstruction of the teacher or the other children. 'There must', argues Dr Montessori[4] 'be some connection between these special things and the child's mind. Here is an attention, normally unstable, held by the same object for ten minutes . . . sometimes even an hour or more. So perhaps the task of the educator is not to force the child to attend, but to find objects to which he **does** attend, so determining the ideal condition for his mental life by an experimental process of trial and error.' ' . . . the best indicator of suitability of apparatus) is the child's (voluntary) **repetition of the same piece of work time after time:** for skill — whether in perceiving or in moving — does not come all at once, but only through repeated efforts or 'practice' . . . Even with a very large class it follows that most of (the children) are busy and, therefore, easily managed. **The teacher becomes an 'introducer', trying always to offer the right thing at the right time** . . . and can practise the higher art of scientific observation, which is quite different from a policeman's observation, or even from playground supervision since it proceeds **from the pure interest to see what happens . . .** '[4]

6. Isolation of the quality to be studied, e.g. material for refining the perception of colour: all the spools are identical **except** for the quality being studied, their colour. This obviously assists conceptualization and encourages the mind to grope or guess at the concept behind any apparatus in the classroom. It is important that any important modern apparatus introduced, thought by the teacher to be 'Montessori oriented', should fulfil this and other conditions to avoid letting down the child's subconscious expectation of this assistance to intellectual growth. ' . . . It does not follow that the needs of life are satisfied by a purely plastic material, or that in a room where everything can be used for any purpose the human spirit may not find itself starved of higher requirements'. Yet, Montessori's ideas encountered the fiercest opposition, and none more so than this **experimentally determined** apparatus itself, especially its exactitude and the precise purposes it is designed to serve, which—to the child's mind—are the centre and focus of its interest (as can be verified in any good Montessori class) . . . The rules of chess are what make the game so attractive that men become enamoured and repeat it for a life time. Without the **rules,** the game disappears and would soon be consigned to the rubbish heap.[5]

7. Although Dr Montessori concentrated mainly on the education of children under 7, she gave a good deal of thought to the older child,[6] and in Holland schools on Montessori lines cater for children up to 18. She considered that from the age of 7, a different emphasis should be placed on the activities offered to the child: the **exercises of grace and courtesy** which helped the younger child to make contact with others, should now be lifted to a higher plane, enabling him e.g., to help the weak, the aged and the sick, in keeping with his newly awakened moral sense and social awareness. The Scout Movement has been successful because it recognizes this dawning of individual dignity and the wish to do difficult things, both physical (long walks etc.) and moral (responsibility for others etc.) 'It is generally objected that the child is already too busy for details of practical and social life to be included in his curriculum. This is a mistake, for **it is far more tiring to use only half the faculties with which nature has endowed us** (my emphasis). It is as if we

were to go along on one foot, because walking on two feet would mean twice the work.'[7]

Unfortunately Maria Montessori's books, written over a period of sixty years, are necessarily old fashioned in style and occasionally innacurate as to scientific details now superseded. But this does not invalidate the fundamental value of her work for any genuine seeker after new light on the nature of the child. This nature does not change basically and her findings are still true today. A Montessori class, where her principles are faithfully applied, affords the visitor unforgettable glimpses into the **Casa dei Bambini** — the radiance in the eyes of a child who has suddenly 'seen' that 2 and 5 make 7; the infinite gentleness of one child helping another when help is **really** needed; the sure step and steady gaze of the 'mature' 4 year old boy, skilfully taking round a dish of hot food and holding it steady while his classmates serve themselves. Such children can easily absorb projects, new maths, the decimal system and any of the latest ideas; more important still, they will grow up **eager** and **able** to learn how to live in whatever new world the future may bring.

Today most of our schools are benefitting from Maria Montessori's ideas — light and airy classrooms; light furniture scaled down to children's size and shape; respect for the child's potential; some measure of individual teaching; material for learning through the concrete, including sensorial material; the inter-relatedness of subjects; the jungle gym and its derivations etc. — although few teachers and alas, educationists, seem to be aware of their continuing indebtedness to her.

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Montessori in practice

Brian Scott-Hughes

A teacher's interpretation of Dr Montessori's philosophy

Dr Montessori was very much opposed to the application of the word 'method' to the philosophy of education which became associated with her name. Such a concept clearly implies principle concentration on the **manner** of education and therefore a reduction in the importance of its many other aspects. It also conveys the idea of an inflexible, fixed approach — a commandment to be strictly adhered to by her disciples. Opponents of Montessori are justified in their criticisms if these are the impressions they receive from the schools they visit. Indeed, Dr Montessori herself would have approved such criticisms if those who adopted her approach revered her as an infallible immortal and her materials as sacred relics. Had she been alive today, Dr Montessori would have been continually examining and evaluating all the many developments in educational psychology, philosophy and practice, in the light of which she would have modified her own views. The very word 'Montessori' implies a progressive outlook.

First and foremost Maria Montessori was a scientist and not the romantic idealist her writings imply. Her 'method' is based on observation over a long period of children from many countries and environments. This careful study resulted in the realisation that there are certain phases in the cognitive development of man which are universally common. These she called Periods of Sensitivity. She understood how the young child struggles to come to terms with his environment, foresaw the obstacles which lay before him, and analysed the difficulties these impose. Subsequently she embodied each difficulty in a piece of material, which she presented to the child to correspond to his needs and interests, in order that he could overcome and assimilate them to his complete satisfaction and permanent advantage. Further, she devised these materials in such a way that they were graded, each piece containing the difficulty of its predecessor and introducing another. In

systematically working through a complete set of materials, the child acquires a complete activity, having proceeded from initial simplicity to an ultimate degree of complexity, although at each stage his attentions are focussed on only one difficulty.

The introduction of relevant materials at the appropriate stage of development results in much repetition of the exercise. When he achieves inner satisfaction, the child discards the material and begins another activity with renewed vigour and enthusiasm. To ensure maximum assimilation, interest is stimulated and prolonged by showing the child different ways of using the materials and by introducing other materials of parallel significance, yet ostensibly very different.

The materials one finds in the Montessori classroom are not restricted to those designed by Maria Montessori herself; clearly no one person in a single lifetime could produce more than a very small percentage of the materials necessary to cover the vast range of children's abilities. What Dr Montessori has done through her original materials is to stress certain criteria which innovations should follow in order to be of maximum benefit. In addition to those characteristics already mentioned, each material contains a 'control of error', that is a means by which the child can himself realise and rectify his mistakes without interference from the adult. As well as being of psychological importance for the child, this is of practical significance for the teacher!

The role of the Montessori teacher (whom Dr Montessori called the 'directress' to distinguish her methods from those of the somewhat authoritarian concept of the teacher prevalent in the first decades of this century) remains very much the same as that initiated by Dr Montessori. She is primarily an observer, and having ascertained the stage of development of the individual child, she then becomes something of a catalyst, acting between the child and his environment, introducing him to materials appropriate to his periods of sensitivity. She does not restrict his attentions to the 'artificial' environment of the classroom, but expands his experiences to reach beyond this by relating what he learns through the materials to the reality of the outside world. There is no better motivation than direct interest and full advantage is taken of this. The resulting self-satisfaction reinforces the child and impels him to strive after further achievements.

Nowadays, when one enters a Montessori classroom for the first time, it appears no different from most infant or primary schools; the rooms are light and colourful, the furniture proportionate to the child, and there is an abundance of attractive materials with which the children are busily occupied, individually and in groups. However, one soon becomes aware of certain distinguishing features. For example, instead of the usual few months difference in age among the children, one finds they cover two or even three years. Consequently the abilities of the children vary greatly. (This cross-section of intellect is ideally complemented by a diversity of race, religion and physical ability, with the children coming from a wide variety of backgrounds. This ideal is rarely achieved.) In such an environment the differences which exist among the children, whether physical or intellectual (and one often finds both a handicapped and exceptionally gifted child within the same group) become no more obvious or significant than differences in height or hair colouring.

The Montessori environment eliminates comparison and there is a noticeable absence of competition. Emphasis is placed on individual performance, each child being encouraged to realise his uniqueness and the uniqueness of others. If a child gives of his best, his work is justly displayed for the attention and admiration of all, irrespective of its standard in comparison with the 'average' child of his age. Honest appraisals are sincerely made by his classmates and valid criticism willingly accepted.

The visitor also soon becomes aware of the number of different activities going on within the class. Here a child works alone with silent concentration on the subject of his choice, while others talk fervently about the subject

of their collective effort. Because Montessori is an individual approach to education, does not eliminate group activities with the class as a whole. These are held frequently and often spontaneously, but one respects the individual child's concentration if he is deriving great satisfaction and benefit from his present occupation, and does not dampen his enthusiasm with a sudden 'clap', which would serve only to reduce his willingness to participate.

As his experiences with the materials become consolidated, the child acquires the basic skills, becoming capable of more intellectual pursuits. However, guided by his interests and needs, he continues to select his activities for himself. The teacher encourages him to expand his interests to cover a wide variety of subjects by showing how interrelated the subjects of the curriculum really are. Also, because of the demands of our educational system in assessing children's abilities so early by emphasising the importance of certain levels of achievement at a certain age within a narrow range of subjects, the child absorbs a 'sense of importance' from the adult and comes to realise the necessity of distributing his energies among a wide variety of subjects.

The freedom of the Montessori child is not an undisciplined one. Rather it is built up from the first moment he enters the school, for when he is socially adapted, he is presented with materials which he selects and then uses independently, assuming responsibility for their welfare. The respect which the teacher shows for the materials is transmitted to the child, as is her respect for him in allowing him to use them when he wishes. These are both reciprocated with the result that the child cares for the materials and accepts any restrictions it is necessary for the teacher to impose. Montessorians do not pretend that external discipline is never necessary (the child is encouraged to follow his natural, not selfish interests), but this is kept to a minimum. Any punishment given is relevant to the offence, with the emphasis on reform, but more with a view to developing a realisation within the child of his social responsibilities. The freedom is therefore a 'controlled' freedom with the ultimate aim of achieving self-discipline.

Nor do Montessorians argue that their children are superior in achievement to their council school equivalents, but justly claim that by following the needs and interests of the individual child, an environment is created which is both stimulating and rewarding to all, irrespective of intellectual capacity. There is also a certain pride that whereas in the council system such 'child-centred' approaches are comparatively recent, the methods advocated by Maria Montessori preceded them by some sixty years.

Although in this country emphasis has been placed mainly on the nursery aspect of Montessori education, Dr Montessori did not concern herself solely with the education of the young child. In her writings can be found much of interest and significance to the current difficulties in secondary and tertiary education. She even anticipated many of these problems and made proposals for their eradication.

Such a concise appraisal of some of the practical implications of Dr Montessori's philosophy is far from adequate in promoting it as an ideal. I have talked only in terms of my own experience as a teacher in a Montessori school, where I have witnessed much enthusiasm and satisfaction among children from a wide variety of backgrounds and with an even wider range of abilities. Within my class there developed not only a love of learning, but a respect for the rights and limitations of others, which was not only evident in the children towards each other, but extended beyond the realm of the school to affect all their relationships, promoting a rare degree of tolerance and understanding. The general application of an individual approach such as this would in time serve to eliminate many of the prejudices ingrained in this world, and lay the foundations for universal peace and understanding.

A further interesting article on Montessori by J. Ewart Smart will appear in our July/August issue.

Peter Petersen and the 'Jena Plan'

H. Raymond King, C.B.E., M.A.(Cantab.)

An Introduction

Peter Petersen's contribution to educational thought and practice is little known in this country. Of his voluminous writings virtually nothing has appeared in English translation other than a Teachers' Manual published many years ago by the Froebel Society and long out of print. But a considerable body of progressive educators in Germany and Susan Freudenthal-Lûtter and her Jena Plan Workshop in Holland place him in the line of the great pedagogical realists, Pestalozzi and Froebel. The re-discovery of Petersen is central to the revival in Germany of the World Education Fellowship.

Petersen saw with Froebel the whole life of man and of humanity as a life of education. Maria Montessori came to the same vision. During the period of her life that she spent in India, she was the friend of philosophers, statesmen, and educational thinkers: it was in these years that she developed and extended the principles and methods that go under her name to cover the whole span of education, and, beyond that, the whole of individual life and the life of humanity.

Unesco has decreed that 1970 shall be Education Year, and has emphasised Lifelong Education as a main theme.

The time has come for an understanding of this theme in its full breadth and depth, not merely as a piece of inspirational rhetoric, but in actuality, as an expansion of education to meet positively the demands of a world in transformation. And so we link Peter Petersen with Friedrich Froebel and Maria Montessori to give us the vision of a lifelong education that has become for our day the reasonable alternative to the new thralldoms that threaten the human spirit.

With them we look for an education coterminous with life itself and available in full measure not only within schools and colleges for the young, but providing for all a source of personal fulfilment throughout life, a process of growth touching all human problems, and helping men to cope with them creatively as they inevitably arise.

So conceived, education is linked with man's attainment of his full stature and with individual human destiny.

An education that moves not only beyond but also outside its present institutional limits brings in the whole community. In the truly educative society we might look to lifelong education for the release of human powers and energies towards the construction and reconstruction of society, and to the building through international understanding and goodwill of one world as the household of humanity. Such thoughts we do well to ponder in this country at this time. 1970 marks the centenary of the Education Act of 1870, which laid the basis of free, universal, compulsory elementary education for all children. Surveying the vast developments of the last hundred years, we look ahead to the possibilities that await mankind in the century that lies ahead.

So much for our perspectives in Education Year 1970.

Our immediate pre-occupations, however, are with education at the pre-school and primary stages.

The crucial importance of the earliest years had been intuitively grasped by educational pioneers in the nineteenth century and earlier. Educational reformers at the beginning of the twentieth century were increasingly able to validate their convictions from research and Child Study. Today there is no room left for doubt. The fact that we have so far failed to embody these convictions in educational provision will doubtless be recorded and deplored by the Conference.

Nevertheless it was from the kindergarten and nursery schools that the creative spirit of internal reform began to enter the education system, beginning with the infant schools and growing upwards into the primary.

The purpose of this article is to suggest that the movement for internal school reform owes more than has generally been acknowledged to the influence of Peter Petersen and the principles he embodied in what has been called the Jena Plan. His disciples in Germany bring weighty evidence and scholarly authority to support the claim that the Jena Plan embodied all the vital aspects of the historical movement for reform during Petersen's lifetime; and that it has continually unfolded in principles and practice to meet contemporary challenges to progressive educators. Moreover it points the way through our present educational predicaments towards progressive solutions on educationally valid lines.

Petersen was both philosopher and pedagogue: theoretician and practical teacher. The evaluation of his pedagogical practice was closely and continuously linked at the Jena University practice-school with operational research. Ultimately this, and not his philosophy, supplied the validation of his methods. We are coming to realise the vital importance of linking research more closely with practice in the classroom and of making it a more integral part of the teacher's experience. For this Petersen half a century ago gave us an outstanding example: with him theory, research, and practice formed an organic whole.

The Essential Principles of the Jena Plan

The touchstone of the plan is the primacy of the educative process: all aspects of work in schools fall into place in subordinate relation to the essential aim, the education of the human being as a whole person.

Hence 'Gemeinschaft', implying life lived in community with fellow human beings, is the first principle of organisation. This is manifested by the rejection of the traditional pattern of grading in year classes by age or ability, and the development of the group concept, based on community living and the natural life-situation in learning and teaching. Various group formations are employed to serve various purposes, but the most characteristic and permanent is the 'family (Stamm-) group', which brings together on a home-room basis children of different ages and maturity levels. This is complemented by a flexible system of groupings for other purposes, including achievement, special ability, and free choice.

The second and parallel principle is educational freedom: free association with persons and free access to educative experience. Pupils associate as they would naturally and freely associate in normal life, without the artificial contraints imposed by a set organisation or any conditions extraneous to the purely educative. The difficulties involved are accepted because of the educative value of the relationship of persons in free association intent upon the achievement of a commonly chosen task. This is what gives purpose, direction, and relevance to their work without artificial disciplinary aids or factitious incentives. The natural educative situation affords full possibilities for mutual stimulus and motivation, help and correction.

But freedom of individual development requires supplementary groupings of other kinds, both 'horizontal' (wide interest and ability range) and 'vertical' (more specific interest, aptitude, or choice). The (interdisciplinary) horizontal groupings give breadth for the cultivation of interests, aptitudes, and affective and conative attitudes. They enable the pupil to find his way towards the education that best suits him and thus eventually towards his true vocation. The vertical groupings ensure that the gifted and the energetic are not held back. They can go at their own pace in special studies without being on that account sundered from their fellows in the family groups which remain central to the organisation.

The Plan takes account of all aspects of balanced human development, including the emotional and aesthetic, health and hygiene, movement and physical exercise. Hence the school week as a curricular whole falls into a Rhythm of work and activity in various and appropriate groups, consciousness of the pattern being heightened by discussion in 'family circle', and by a weekly Celebration planned and prepared in common.

Further, and very specifically, the Jena Plan presents pupils with a series of clearly structured and recognisable 'Situations'. These, and not lesson periods, are the units of the curriculum. They provide the substance and the framework through which the teachers plan, guide, and control the education of their pupils. The teacher's role is that of mentor, not dominie. The teacher with his greater knowledge, maturity, and wisdom, exercises the controls necessary to ensure the structural sequence: Situation—Guidance—Learning — Application. His function is to vivify the Situation, expand its significance and relevance, and enrich its meaning, and, of course, correct misunderstandings. At the learning phase the sequence is: formulation of the problem — group-initiated investigations — group findings — evaluation, expansion, and systemisation of knowledge gained.

Petersen was the first educationalist to grasp the fruitful connection between the existentialist conception of the 'situation' and the method of education. In face of the situation the child is engaged as a whole person. It is in choice and decision that he becomes a self. The situation engenders a reciprocity between pupils, and between pupils and teacher. The individual cannot fulfil himself in isolation: he needs others to complete his self-realisation. The 'Thou' is indispensable to the development of what constitutes the 'I'. To be human is to be in situations. To Petersen education is concerned with man in his life situation. The Lebenssinn (Life conception) comes to be realised in Schulwirklichkeit (true-to-life genuine experience as the basis of school learning).

The teacher does not stand over against the class as the oracular source of knowledge. He is not even the master of the situation: he cannot with certainty pre-plan its development; for in human situations there is always an irrational element. This engenders spontaneity, on the part of pupils and teacher alike. The teacher cannot stand by merely as observer. He is a participant in the situation, and as participant, a learner, as well as guide and mentor.

The situation is an aspect of reality that makes its immediate impact on the learner. It is first-hand subjective experience. Contents, elaboration, and evaluation should not be objectively and prematurely supplied by the teacher. The teacher's temptation to take short cuts to supplying knowledge should be resisted. The process by which reality impinges upon the consciousness of the pupil should not be short-circuited. The situation as the stuff of education must be allowed to speak for itself.

(To supply ready-made answers is useless: it damps down curiosity which is the beginning of wisdom and wonder which lies at the root of philosophy).

Man is involved with his fellows in situations. Hence the educative significance of the real group, the community or fellowship of persons, each of whom reacts as a whole person, bringing to bear in discussion his own ideas, experiences, and judgments. These are pooled, compared, criticised, corrected, and supplemented. A questing and questioning attitude to knowledge is built up.

The Jena Plan does not do away with school as hitherto understood, but it profoundly changes it: it makes school natural, a part of life as it is lived. Its educational realism fits it to meet the needs of the age, but it holds firm to its responsibilitiy for meeting the needs of the child.

In a school given over to individual methods there would be as little chance as in a school that practised traditional methods of 'frontal' instruction to cultivate the educative values of group work in discussion circles, play, and celebration. Petersen freed the school from the domination of collective instruction by adopting not so much the principle of individual teaching as the principle of the dialogue. He did not aim at carrying individual freedom to its limit. Freedom is conditioned by community: the group method imposes its own obligation within a climate of freedom. The Jena Plan school is the 'way of the child', that is, an integral and whole way of education: it is also a school 'on the way', that is, in a state of continual becoming. It responds

to social change and adapts to new knowledge.

The expansiveness and adaptability of the Jena principles are capable of uniting all the partial and piecemeal efforts at educational reform into a coherent whole—a total strategy for the renewal of education. This is the belief of its present-day advocates. As a conceptual model it is flexible enough to admit individual teaching, Dalton Plan, the education of the gifted or the backward, group work, projects, family and multiple grouping, interdisciplinary enquiry, team teaching, continuous learning: add to these programmed learning, classroom technology, closed-circuit television, and presently the satellite.

The Plowden Report commended the initiative of schools that had enlisted parental participation—within the school—in the education of their children. We may expect this theme to be developed in the Conference. It was a notable feature of the Jena school from the start. For example, parents joined in the 'family' group discussion circles. Petersen conceived the school as a community of parents, teachers, and children, in which the democratic way of life was not only the theoretical basis but the living practice.

I have not attempted to describe in this introduction the detailed organisation of a Jena school. One such description was given in the New Era, May 1965, by Theodor Ruhaak, headmaster of the Peter Petersen School in Hamburg. The article is in German but is followed by a full-length summary in English. However, the Jena schools by no means conform to a single pattern.

Susan Freudenthal-Lûtter, author of 'Naar de School van Morgen' (Towards the School of Tomorrow), has for the past ten years made an intensive and extensive study of such schools, and knows them from within. Her account of them to the Conference will be illuminating and authentic.

The Development of Kindergartens in Denmark in the Sixties

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In 1959 a big three-day meeting was held, on the initiative of the Danish Women's National Council, at Christianborg in Copenhagen. Many women's and educational associations acted as joint sponsors and the title of the meeting was: 'Where are the children allowed to be?' The purpose of the meeting was to make the public, the Government, Parliament, the Trade Unions etc. aware that it was felt that the time had come for public attention to be drawn to the requirements of an environment fit for stimulating the development of pre-school children.

This meeting was the beginning of the progress, which has taken place in the education of infants during the last ten years in Denmark. Before I describe this development, I will draw the readers' attention to a couple of other things, which are characteristic of Denmark compared to most other European countries.

1. Already at the beginning of this century, the thought of Kindergartens influenced the, at that time existing, children's homes, and in 1901 was established a national kindergarten association, whose aim was to make those day institutions, where infants had to stay whilst the parents were working, into educational places of development for children. This has resulted, that in Denmark we use only one name for infant institutions, namely 'Børnehaver' Kindergartens. Within this group we speak about 'Whole day kindergartens' and 'Half day kindergartens', all depending whether they are open 10-11 hours a day, or they are open 3-4 hours.

2. In Denmark a child has not reached the age of compulsory education, until it is seven years old, and it is not common to let it start school before it is six and a half.

3. In Denmark the kindergarten age is from three to seven years. In a few kindergartens there are infant groups for children from two to three years. But generally we feel, that such small children ought only to be placed in an institution, if it is necessary from family or economic reasons. As an extension, which is necessary, we establish day nurseries for these children, or place them in private homes.

After these remarks I will return to the meeting in 1959. At this time we had a registration which made a 70% grant from the state and municipalities possible for the foundation and running of whole day kindergartens. Half day kindergartens however only got 35% grant unless two thirds of the children come from homes of limited means. This quite obviously depended on whether kindergartens were considered necessary in those cases where there was a background of economic and production interests (mothers going out to work), or whether the community's obligations to the big group of children of three to seven were in general not understood. One wanted the public to realise its responsibility towards the educational needs of this age group and one succeeded in some degree.

The first direct result of the meeting was a change in the new Children and Youth Welfare bill, which we got in 1961, according to which whole day and half day kindergartens got equal conditions in regard to grants from the public, that is to say a 70% contribution. The remaining 30% of the expenditure for the running of a kindergarten is to be received through the parents paying for the child's stay. However in 1968 an addition has been made to this, so that the parents of limited means can get whole or partial payment of their expenses to the kindergarten through the municipalities.

The new rules of grant and the rising welfare of the community has meant a very big extension of both half day and whole day kindergartens in the last ten years, and it seems that the extension will go on into the seventies. From 587 grant entitled kindergartens in 1960, the number has in 1969 risen to 1,173. This means that nearly 15% of all children between three and seven years in the whole country are offered a place in a kindergarten for as many hours as the family finds it desirable. Naturally most kindergartens are found in the towns, thus the general percentage in Copenhagen is nearly 40%.

But also in the country, even in the smaller country-towns, there is among the population a constantly increasing understanding of preschool children's need of kindergartens under the given society development. The farmer families are becoming smaller, and often it is a long way to the nearest neighbour. There are dangerous machines and not so much liberty as earlier. Besides it is becoming more and more common, that the rural population go over to industry, as the farms require less workers, owing to mechanisation, and we also see more and more married women going out to work.

Since the start of kindergartens there has been, in this country, a tradition that the establishment of kindergartens rested on private initiative. Numerous contacts with different ideological points of view have been started with the purpose of establishing kindergartens. At the same time, our law in regard to Child and Youth welfare places upon the local authorities the responsibility of ensuring that the necessary number of children's institutions are to be found and, if necessary, to establish them themselves.

With the very great expansion of late, in all respects it is getting still more difficult to the private associations to build enough and we see that, to a still more considerable degree, the municipalities take over the building of kindergartens. Perhaps we shall before long be at that point, where it will be the sympathetic local authorities which both establish and run the kindergartens, as it has for a long time been the case with the schools. Then it will also become necessary to formulate a national standard, as it exists for the Primary School. As the situation is today, we find different formulations of aims for the different kindergartens, according to the interests of the groups which are standing behind the

establishment.

Yet there are some subjects, which appear in all statements of principle, and they are: 1) The kindergarten is to be a supplement to the Home. 2) Education in the kindergarten is to develop on the child's inherent possibilities. 3) The kindergarten is to offer the children a many-sided and stimulating environment. 4) Formal academic intellectual training is not allowed to take place.

Besides this, some kindergartens are based on a Christian outlook, others with a clear dissociation from both political and religious influence on children. The latest mentioned are the ones, which in future developments are going to be in the majority, from a conviction that in the kindergarten children from all groups in the community should be able to thrive side by side, and the influencing of the tendency of certain outlooks must come from the homes.

The earliest kindergartens in Denmark were evidently inspired by Frøbel's thoughts about the child as a plant, which should be watered and taken care of to be able to thrive. By the end of the twenties the Danish kindergarten received much needed inspiration through Montessori's ideas about the free choice of the child, about the child's sensitive periods and children's need of independently finding the solution of the problems which absorbed them.

Today we find literally no 'pure' Frøbel or Montessori Kindergartens in our country. In most of our kindergartens the educationalists have succeeded in combining the best of Frøbel's and Montessori's theories with our added knowledge of development and group psychology, as we have learnt it first of all through Arnold Gesell, Erik H. Eriksson and Piaget.

On this background and with the future development of the community in sight, we try to prepare an environment and a pedagogy, which respects the individual child's need of activity and stimulation of development. We arrange the day in the kindergarten so that the spheres of the child's personality are respected in the supply of toys and activity material. Importance is attached both to coordination and absorption in a problem, especially the children's own creative display and activity, both in the case of manual activities (painting, modelling, drawing etc.) and in the case of singing, motion, dramatic play, etc. We think that the children through these free activities, on a realistic foundation, get to know their own abilities, and that their fantasy and creativeness are developed, so that in this way they will later be able to solve other problems. Through playing with constructive materials and through the act of playing roles, they will eventually experience the pleasure and value of co-operation. In this way, the first duty of the educationist becomes the one of knowing her children and their needs, so that she is able to arrange a many-sided programme for the day and be a source of inspiration for the children, who for one or another reason lack the faith in their own abilities, which is necessary to start new tasks.

There are twenty children in each group in the Danish kindergartens, but these twenty are often occupied in smaller groups or singly with different games round in the room or rooms and the playground. From group psychology we know that it is of great importance to these infants' social development slowly to perceive themselves as members of a smaller group, so that by the end of the time in the kindergarten, they are able to see themselves as belonging to 'the big' group.

The children's world of ideas is tried and developed most on the concrete level, from our knowledge of the inability to conceive abstractions of children in this age. Through conversations, walks in the surroundings, first hand experiments and didactic materials of different kinds, it is as a rule possible to let every child obtain a self-confidence, which is based on the pleasure of solving tasks and learning new things.

The kindergartens are built in different dimensions to 60—52 or 40 children, more rarely to 80—72 or 20.

Normally they are formed for the purpose of the children being classified according to age. This is due to our knowledge of the children's needs at different ages, which make it easier to the educationist to organize the daily programme for a rather well-defined age group. From investigations of the stimulating influence it might have, and the reduction of the factor of competition which takes place when the children are allowed to mix, in regard to age, in several places experiments are being conducted by dispensing with a rigid age-group and try to arrange the kindergarten in rooms after activities: A workshop, a room for gymnastics and free movement, a doll — role playroom etc., knowing that such a classification makes greater demands on the teachers for stimulating the children's activities and for drawing their attention to the children's (especially the small newcomers) need of fundamental safety, the fulfilment of which is the condition of the development of independence.

But we intend that it should increase the independence of the children, their sense of responsibility, their ability to making free choices, their ability to coordinate with different people — all abilities which we think are becoming necessary for the citizens of the community of tomorrow — if we make the institutions more open and more flexible. As well as working on closer relationship towards the children, we are also working on closer relationship with the parents. A new announcement is on its way according to which, the parents are to have representation on all the governing bodies of the kindergartens.

A tendency which has been clear in the sixties, and which will continue, is the placing of handicapped children in normal kindergartens. It has been found that handicaps of children were not really realized until the children were about to start school, and that they already at this moment suffered psychologically to a degree, that they could not be taught together with the others. We have a rather enlarged welfare for different handicaps, but we have also realized that many of these handicapped children would get a much more realistic perception of their own situation if they were placed at the infant stage in an environment with non-handicapped children. It would as well increase the normal children's understanding of people who are different, to have been used to associate with them from their early childhood. At last, there may lay a direct treatment of a child with for instance a speech defect or a hardness of hearing, in moving in an environment with children of the same age who speak or hear normally. Therefore in all kindergartens we now count on being prepared to receive a few children with lighter handicaps of different kinds. Yet we must also remember, that there are children whose handicaps are so loaded, that they will feel more comfortable among equals. For these we will still need special institutions.

With the law of 1961 we were promised a kind of kindergarten, which has not yet been established. It is treatment kindergartens for psychiatrically disturbed children. Often there will be children needing treament in the kindergartens, simply because we do not have other places to send them. To these children a group of twenty children may be too large a challenge, at the same time, a single child with heavy psychological difficulties may be a hindrance to the educationist in working with the rest of the group. These kindergartens with a few children in the groups and really well qualified staff are one of the greatest hopes for the seventies.

Finally I will mention the newest kind of kindergarten in this country, namely the so-called 'kindergarten classes'. In 1962 we had an addition to our law on primary schools, which made it possible to establish special classes for children below the age of compulsory education. Actually the addition was conceived as an experimental section, but even before any result of the experiments had been received, a law of general applications came in 1966, since when all local authorities can establish kindergarten classes, if there are rooms and teachers available.

The kindergarten classes have extended with rapidity, from the school year 1966-67 to the present the number has risen from 212 to 562

with 20 children in every class. To many of the country's municipalities the aim is to be able to offer all children at the age of five and a half to seven years, one year's stay in a kindergarten class. The kindergarten classes are open only three hours a day, for which reason they do not meet the working parents' need of a full day's attendance.

Normally in the arrangement of the classes and in the organizing of their work, primary importance is given to meet exactly the needs of this age group; associating with other children through play, the needs of bodily activity and of intellectual occupation. As in the kindergartens, it is pointed out that formal academic instruction ought not to take place, but that numbers and letters to a high degree form a possible part of the different kinds of activities. Great importance is also attached to linguistic stimulation. By making the teaching in the kindergarten classes be highly child-centred and by gradually letting the children experience the new environment (the intervals in the playground, the school medical officer, the school dentist, the bigger children, the other teachers, the psychologist) and by a well established coordination between the teacher of the kindergarten class and the teacher who is going to take over the children in the first primary class, we have through the kindergarten class a possibility, that the systems of education acquire a natural connexion with each other.

Previously it has been for many children a very steep and difficult crossing to go from a protected home environment or a very accepting kindergarten environment to a more demanding school environment. With the kindergarten classes we hope that the children will be able to experience continuity and natural development from one stage to another.

With the new demands claimed on the infant teachers in a modern community in rapid development a very good education is an absolute necessity. It is therefore pleasant, that the sixties completed the passing of a law about the kindergarten teachers training. With this new law, which is due to come into force the first of September this year, the kindergarten teachers education lasts three years instead of two as at present. It is a very much needed improvement towards which we have been striving for many years. The present training includes 10 months theoretical instruction in psychology, education, social science, Danish with practical subjects: singing, music, gymnastics, dramatic, creative art and 10 months teacher practice in kindergartens. In the new training only the theory instruction will benefit from the increased time, so that there will still be ten months of practical education, but twenty months of theoretical instruction.

The curriculum of the colleges of education will not be enlarged. But there will be a possibility of introducing new aspects of the subjects, and above all, the students will be able to concentrate more on single topics and have greater independence in the organization and specialised study of the subjects. With the colossal growth which has taken place inside the kindergarten sector in the sixties, the need of kindergarten teachers has of course also much increased, and a very essential quantitative enlargement of the education has been made. With the new education we hope that a qualitative improvement of the abilities of the kindergarten teachers in planning and carrying out an educational piece of work will also take place, an improvement which will give the infants the best possible environment to grow up and develop themselves in.

Freinet's contribution to the New Education

Michel Betrand
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It is impossible to describe the work of Freinet, founder of the **Mouvement de l'Ecole Moderne** (the Contemporary School Movement) without associating it with his life which, for over 40 years, was dedicated to the liberali-

sation of mankind, to its inception, its growth and its expansion — all this being achieved by an educational system, of which the fundamental principle is the interest in the world around them, so powerful in children. In 1920 severely wounded in the 1914-1918 war and just out of the Nice Teachers' Training College, Freinet found himself, for the first time, face to face with a class of 40 young peasant children in Bar-sur-Loup, a little mountain village in the Maritime Alps. Within four years, this sick man, suffering from a lung disease, who was exhausted after an hour's teaching, summoned up the strength to carry out a complete re-assessment of his profession, thus initiating the educational revolution which today is still the motivating force of the **Mouvement de l'Ecole Moderne.** He read Marx and Lenin and, sustained by the inspiration of founding a movement, he was prepared to query the aims and methods of the state schools of 1920 and deal with the problems of general education, thus marking a new stage in the evolution of education.

Physically exhausted, he decided to qualify as a primary school inspector. This gave him the opportunity to come into contact with the minds of those who had shaped education throughout the ages; Rabelais, Montaigne, Rousseau, Pestalozzi and his own contemporary, Ferrière, became familiar to him. At the same time, he was little by little adopting a new attitude towards educational problems which arose from the day-to-day life of his class. He listened to his children, he took them for walks, the whole class observed, comparted, evaluated, sought for information and awoke to an understanding of their environment.

Having taken his Arts degree, he refused the appointment offered to him in order to concentrate on his work as a primary school teacher. He intended to use the children's basic interests in order to satisfy their need for activity and acquiring information and immediately came up against the lack of educational material.

In 1924, one of the early conferences of the New Education Fellowship was held at Montreux. There Freinet met Ferrière, Claparède, Bovet and Cousinet. He then discovered that the New Education was already being practised in schools which had the educational equipment and the organisation which made possible both the children's activities and individual teaching. He became more aware of the close connection between the school and its environment and of the conditioning of the school and education by society. He resolutely turned towards educational materialism, which remained his finest concept and towards discovering educational techniques of universal application, whatever the differing individual results. These methods were to be based on the common focus of interest of the class. He set out on the track of this common focus, which brought him to the development of free composition and to the introduction of printing into the school. The living school as the natural extension of the life of the family, the village and the environment, was created together with an educational theory of unity and dynamism which linked the child to its social environment and enabled the teacher to study the child's psychology as it developed and in relation to its environment.

As early as 1924, the first exchange of correspondence between schools was started between Freinet's class and that of his first disciple. The need to provide their opposite numbers with information became the focus of interest of the class, whilst the practise of printing gave rise to a natural method of reading and to the cooperative organisation of the class. New disciples joined him. Freinet improved his printing press and began to publish the results of their common experiences.

'The contribution which our method makes to education and can lead to numerous developments,' he says, 'is the opportunity of modernising and motivating our teaching by using the means of communication between individuals in the school. Everything conventional and dead must be eliminated from today's teaching . . . and we must educate the citizens of the new society.'

To replace the text books, new equipment was to be created cooperatively: collections

of films, educational documentation, reference libraries — which would make available to the pupils the various materials which would meet the needs of current interests. Handicrafts and art also took their place amongst the educational techniques.

But the 1939-45 war broke out and his followers scattered. The Freinet School, which he had built at Vence with his own hands, was taken over by the Army. Freinet was deported. Nevertheless, this period of separation from his profession gave him the opportunity to carry out extremely fruitful work in regard to considering and developing the theories which had arisen out of his experiences.

'L'Education du travail' (Education through activity) which solves the educational problem of the development of the child: it is through the motivated activity of the life of the group that the balanced development of the child will be achieved. Its entrance into this harmonious society prepares it for a conscious and desired adaptation to a new society for whose improvement it will be responsible. As a matter of course, Freinet was brought to study the practical organisation of scholastic work and organisation which he would deal with again at a later date and of which he would give a precise definition in **'L'Ecole Moderne Francaise'.**

Finally, by studying the problems of children's behaviour when left free to conduct their own experiments in a given environment, he evolved his theory of 'tentative experimentation' in his **'Essai de Psychologie Sensible'** (Essay on Sensory Psychology): each pupil conducts a series of tentative experiments according to the resources of the environment. Successful experiments are achieved by repetition, readjustments and additions, using natural methods which allow the personality to unfold. The interaction between the individual child and its environment is an essential factor in the dynamic perspective of the method and of the cooperative system which is the preparation for life in society.

In this way, Freinet's educational theory is shown to be an experiment-based education and has therefore the characteristics of a scientific method. We create as varied an environment as possible by giving children the means which will enable them to carry out a great number of tentative experiments, which will give rise to logical thinking and comprehension. This reveals methods similar to those used in training apprentices, all of which having been tested by discussion with and criticism from the teachers, produce natural methods and are a sign of progress in the conduct of education.

Indeed, starting in their classes and centred in the training courses and departmental groups of the I.C.E.M. **(Institut Coopératif de l'Ecole Moderne)** and in all sections of society, the militants of the **Ecole Moderne** strive to promote an education better adapted to the needs and aspirations of youth and closer to its ideals, as it is set out in the Charter of the **Ecole Moderne,** of which only the headings are given:—

1 Education should develop and stimulate and not accumulate facts, train or condition.

2 We are opposed to any indoctrination.

3 We reject the illusion of a self-sufficient education which takes no account of the major social and political trends by which it is influenced.

4 The school of tomorrow will be a working school.

5 The school will be child-centred. It is the child itself who, with our help, develops its own personality.

6 Basic experimental research is the first requirement of our attempt to modernise teaching through cooperation.

7 The teachers of the I.C.E.M. are alone responsible for the orientation and development of their cooperative efforts.

8 Our **Mouvement de l'Ecole Moderne** is eager to maintain sympathetic and cooperative relations with all organisations working along similar lines.

9 We are willing to share our experiences with our colleagues in order to bring about the modernisation of education.

10 Freinet's educational principles are essentially international.

Freinet substituted for the **auditorium scriptorium** class the socialised class, in which materials and workshops are available to children in suitable surroundings. He worked on perfecting this technique with the teachers gathered together at the heart of the I.C.E.M. It is because of this that the **Ecole Moderne** classes have varied and functional material available:—

— the printing press, the linograph and linogravure enable a school newspaper to be published. This motivates the expression of children's thoughts and encourages their dissemination through interchanges with other schools.

— the reference files containing numerous classified documents, which facilitate the children's use of themes taken from the world around them, to which Freinet gave the name of 'complexes of interest'.

— The series **'Bibliothèque de travail'** (the Students' Library) now consists of more than 900 handbooks which provide the children with a particularly rich source of exact studies of innumerable aspects of the past and present world.

— audio-visual documentation (Sound reference library) correctly used in the classroom brings life to widening horizons.

— the programmed teaching cabins and tapes which are just beginning to be used, further increase the possibility of individualisation and of consolidating the knowledge acquired.

— the studio gives our children great opportunities for personal artistic expression.

This material and the various technical aids can only achieve maximum effectiveness when used in the manner which we have tried to describe. 'Between traditional methods and our natural methods,' said Freinet, 'there is a fundamental difference of principle, which if not understood will always lead to unfair and erroneous criticism. Traditional methods are specifically academic, they have been created, tested and more or less adjusted to a scholastic environment which has its aims, ways of life and manner of work, its moral standards and its law; these are not the aims and ways of living and working of the non-scholastic environment which we will call the living world. We are not prejudiced against or critical of either these methods or of those who practise them within the framework of this scholastic situation and we do not claim that our natural methods would fit in any better in this setting or produce far better results. It is the very existence of this scholastic situation as it exists today which we consider to be irrational, old fashioned and dangerously isolated from the living contemporary society and therefore incapable of making it possible to lay the foundations of a true education which will allow the child to develop into the adult of tomorrow, aware of his rights, but also capable of carrying out his obligations in a world which he must create and rule.'

The equipment and techniques of the **Ecole Moderne,** its natural methods whose cooperative definition has been enlarged and defined since 1945, at a time when the Freinet Movement spread throughout France and the world — do they still bring us today possible solutions in the prospective perspective?

We believe it does because we also believe that Freinet's Educational Theory, based on common sense, dynamism and communication, is capable of adapting itself to new situations.

A dynamic education since it respects the child's vital energy and tries to create the best possible conditions for development through free activities and enables each child to ensure its liberty by creating projects for which he is entirely responsible and in which he is entirely concerned.

A common-sense education since it is based on a day-to-day knowledge of the child and — to achieve this end—on constant observation of the children in a situation of freedom, activity and experimentation; and because at a time when a plethora of information is available, it does not try to overload the children's memories but to form their judgment; it teaches them to account for each step they take, to deduce from their experiments, to choose their documentation, and within these documents, the elements which are essential to their comprehension; because its natural methods allow each child to progress at its own pace and to acquire intelligently, through its own efforts, the basic elements of its education.

An education through communication, because it creates a happy living community, where experiments, discoveries, pleasures and sorrows are shared, whilst at the same time exchanging them with classes living in a different environment.

An education which promotes collaboration between the teachers, to find and perfect cooperatively the equipment which is essential to the creation of educational techniques.

The possible solutions which Freinet's system of education offers to all educationalists who are anxious to help the child to mature into the free and paternal adult of tomorrow are available to each of us, opening our eyes to the complexities of educational problems and to the absolute necessity for deep and total commitment, without any reservations, for a ruthless assessment of one's own weaknesses and cultural limitations and for an ever-increasing daily thirst for knowledge which leads us to seek for collaborators amongst the seekers in every part of the field of Human Sciences.

Friedrich Froebel — The Man and his Methods

Dr Evelyn Lawrence

Froebel was one of the small number of really great educational theorists, though his ideas are now better known than his name.

He was born in 1782 in a small village in Thuringia, now part of the Russian zone of Germany. His father was the village pastor and as a child he saw a good deal of the seamy side of remote rural life in eighteenth century Germany. His mother died when he was very young, and he had a cruel stepmother. So the solitary and unloved child took comfort in the beauties of the countryside and, as he grew up, in the transcendental mysteries of his own somewhat pantheistic system of religion, and in the contemplation of the place of mankind in that system.

His early education was rather scrappy, and his university course was never completed. But he dipped into a wide range of subjects, and his interest in mathematics, particularly geometry, and crystallography were fundamental to the cosmic philosophy which he gradually developed, and of which his educational doctrines formed an essential part. His first training for a career was in forestry, which meant a constant preoccupation with the countryside, with growth and with the interdependence of all the living things around him. Then he turned to architecture to which his eye for form would again be basic. But in Frankfurt, where he meant to study, he met a disciple of Pestalozzi, the headmaster of the Frankfurt Model School, who invited him to teach there. The offer was accepted, and Froebel's life's work was begun.

In 1807 he exchanged class teaching for tutoring, and took his two pupils for two years to Pestalozzi's school in Switzerland. He found himself in sympathy with Pestalozzi's basic ideas of love and respect for children, of learning by doing, and of the dignity of work. But he thought the master's thinking woolly, his organisation muddled and his staff-relations unhappy.

In 1813 Froebel enlisted in the German Army, and there met comrades to whom he could expound his developing philosophy, both universal and educational. They quickly recognised him as a master, and later became his lifelong disciples and colleagues. He opened a school of his own in 1816, and started his lifelong campaign for his own system of education.

Froebel's primary approach to education was religious, but not in the ordinary sense. His preoccupation with the wonders of the universe was incessant, fervent, poetic and infectious. From the stars to crystals, form and movement, growth and decay, he saw all as order, and order was God. Of this colossal harmony man was a part, and a part moreover capable of individual will, which if good could work with the whole, and if evil could blight the divine scheme at its vital growing tip. Froebel had seen plenty of evil through life in a primitive rural community and contact with his father's pastoral work. And he had also seen happy family life and pleasant productive work in that same countryside.

Men could not play their rightful part in the divine scheme unless to some extent they understood it. Therefore the factor in life of prime importance was education, and Froebel saw, what so many educationalists still do not see, that education begins at birth, and is from that moment the concern of those who plan for children's welfare. Organic growth of body and mind was one of Froebel's central concepts, and he saw that it is not much good to foster organic growth only from the middle. Everything must be right from the beginning, and from before the beginning. The place where the child begins is the family and mothers are the most important educators of all. Most mothers who love their children largely act rightly from intuition. They not only care for them physically, but they teach them to perceive, to talk and to adapt happily to the family situation, but their practice could usually be improved with expert help and guidance.

Perhaps Froebel's greatest contribution to the theory of early education is his realisation of the immense importance of play. Play is the child's work. Through it he not only practices bodily skills in the most effective way, but he learns to observe, to see how things in the outer world are related to each other and to him. He questions, tests and explores. On the other hand he has a natural impulse to create. He builds, constructs, dramatises, paints, tells stories, sings. In all these activities the grown-ups need only provide the wherewithall. The impulses come from him. In the earliest years, though he needs to be with other people, his attention is mainly in what he himself is doing. But later on he plays with other children, and so learns to listen as well as to speak, to cooperate, help, give and take and to sympathise.

Part of the play of country children as Froebel saw it was joining in the life of the family, feeding the chickens, digging in the garden, helping his father with his horse and cart and so on. All this is movingly described in Froebel's most important book, **The Education of Man** (1826).

In a village it is obviously advantageous that children after their first two or three years should be gathered in groups for part of each day with trained people to look after them. Such places would hardly be schools. It took Froebel years to evolve exactly the right name for them, and he experienced a sense of triumph when it occurred to him: gardens of children — kindergartens.

One thing especially Froebel knew about children; that was that their play nearly always meant having things to handle, and he was impelled to invent appropriate material for his purpose. And this is where he went wrong. He thought he could improve on the kind of things which occur naturally in the home, water, earth, sticks, rags, pebbles, pets, paper, colours, all of which will keep little children endlessly happy if freely provided. He thought he could hasten the process of becoming aware of the wonders of the universe by the use of what he called his gifts and occupations (though the objects were kept in the classroom and never given). The first gift was a set of little woollen balls each

with a string attached. Play with these would demonstrate the properties of the sphere and symbolise the earth, the heavenly bodies, the drop of water etc. etc. Gift two was the cylinder, continuing the circle and the straight line, stable and yet rollable. The other gifts were little rectlineal bricks of various shapes. The occupations included more purely play activities, with beads, coloured squares of paper, paper strips to weave, cardboard to prick patterns on and other jobs carefully controlled by the teacher which now seem to us intensely dull. (Gifts and occupations did not take up the whole school day. There was gardening, singing, going for walks, games in the open air.) Froebel and his disciples were passionately dedicated to their project, and were greatly loved by the children. After a time Froebel's own life was mainly devoted to writing and lecturing. His ideas became widely known, and visitors came from far and near to see what he was doing. Similar institutions grew up in other parts of Germany and they were heard of abroad.

In 1848 however came revolution in Germany, and the government clamped down on liberal institutions of many kinds, including the Froebelian schools. Many of the intelligentsie went abroad, sometimes taking with them their Froebel-trained governesses. Some went to England, France and America, and soon in this country set about propagating Froebelian doctrines and establishing training centres, mostly with a view to producing governesses for private families. The system was at that time too expensive for countries only then in the earliest stages of providing popular education.

In England the second half of the nineteenth century saw the gradual spread of Froebelian ideas of child-centred education, and the setting up of the Froebel colleges proper. By the turn of the century ordinary infant schools all over the country were furnished with the Froebel gifts and occupations though unluckily 'Froebel' was often an item on the time-table rather than a way of life for all day and every day. In 1970 the gifts and occupations have gone. What is left? The whole of progressive education; of which many of Froebel's ideas form the essential core.

We now know that some of Froebel's most important psychological assumptions were mistaken. He thought (following Rousseau) that young children were essentially good, and that human evil was the consequence of wrong handling in the early years. Freud has taught us that from the start fear, hatred, anger, and jealousy are present, and that education is in part learning how to cope with these in ourselves. Another faulty belief was that in presenting material for children to learn, it was best to break it up into simple elements, to be assembled in the child's mind later. Hence the symbolic balls, cylinders and cubes, alphabetic reading, pothook writing. The world, however, does not present itself to the new mind in this way. It comes as complex wholes, the details of which only later are sorted out. This means that school programmes should be much more like ordinary living than they have usually been in the past, with less breaking up into subjects, and more concern with topics and activities as wholes.

Modern psychology certainly supports the most fundamental of Froebel's doctrines, that the best, almost the only, motive for learning is the child's own motive, as in play. Piaget has shown that even perception is not passive. A child learns to see by actively exploring the outlines of an object with his eyes. And research with children in old-fashioned orphanages and dull and poverty-stricken homes has shown that a lifeless passive condition in earliest infancy can impair future intellectual growth.

We now know therefore that the best schools are the ones where the children move about, handle things, question, explore, read, discuss and explain to each other. The teacher's main function is to provide some, not all, of the stimulus, to encourage help, praise, record. The children follow their interests into the streets and the countryside, to museums and libraries. Parents and other adults are drawn into their activities. Reading is introduced as the children need it, and in a lively class this soon happens. They are helped to write and illustrate their own books, and not

every child in the class will learn by exactly the same method. Some will learn most easily by looking and saying the individual words, some with whole sentences, others will more easily analyse words into individual sounds.

The spirit behind these ideas is transforming the teaching of science. It is realised that even the toddler is equipped with the intense interest in the world around him, the observing, comparing, questioning, affirming and doubting which will later inform the attitudes of the scientist. One two-year-old was seen standing in front of a mirror and saying 'Walter like a man'. If in the primary school children's own spontaneous queries are actively followed up individually or in groups, by the time the senior stage is reached the foundation of eagerness, patience, industry and dispassionateness needed for real and more systematic scientific study has already been laid. This will mean not the old stereotyped experiments which are not experiments at all but demonstrations will be replaced by enquiries which will have interest and meaning for the children themselves.

Another aspect of this essentially Froebelian method of education is that it is eminently social. Cooperative, helpful, unselfish good-tempered members of their communities can only be produced by early and constant working and playing with other children and adults. Children who sit in rows, taught by teacher, don't learn many social virtues, other than obedience. We talk about the present permissive society, but that should not mean permission to damage other things and people. Quite young children will discuss and be most interested in moral problems of this kind with wise and perceptive teachers.

Only slowly is the idea circulating that it is not only young children who need education of this kind. To how many people does what they learnt at school mean much? And how many adults leave school profoundly ignorant, hating school, hating teachers and what is for them the whole beastly set-up. Don't let us as teachers kid ourselves that they usually love us. Who can say whether the recent outbursts of university violence are not partly the result of, for many pupils, perhaps thirteen years of only partly realised frustration? They have sat still when they wanted to move about and been taught what they didn't want to know. Now they are saying, sometimes very ignorantly and violently, sometimes quite sensibly 'We insist on being taught what we want to know'. Probably many university authorities have read Froebel, but they could certainly learn from him.

The Decroly School in Brussels

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Dr Decroly (1871-1932), who founded the two schools in Brussels that bear his name, was a medical doctor, but he soon specialized in psychology and pedagogy. He helped to create various educational organizations: 'Fonds des Mieux-Doués, Ligue pour l'Education Nouvelle, Société Belge de Pédotechnie, Foyer des Orphelins, Institut des Sourds-Muets et Aveugles, Ferme-Ecole de Waterloo, Ecole-Jardin d'Anderlecht.'

In 1901, he opened an institute for backward children. Dr Decroly acquired the certainty that the study of the backward child's psychology would in many cases, help to understand the normal child. The results obtained in this first school were so convincing that the parents of these children decided that they wanted the same method used for the education of their normal children and a second school was opened for them in 1907: the 'Ecole Decroly de l'Ermitage' which Dr Decroly directed personally until his death in 1932. Actually this school assumes the complete preparation, from kindergarten to University, of 650 pupils, boys and girls. The continuity of its methods is due to the fact that Dr Decroly considered that pedagogy is a science that requests the formation of a specialized team of educators and that the school is a laboratory. From the beginning, all the conditions of educational research were rigorously defined by a scientfic method, on a bio-psycho-pedagogic base, avoiding hazard and amateurism.

The Decroly method is based on the needs of the child and society and on the resources of the environment; it is, as life, in continuous evolution. Sixty years of existence and daily experience have moulded it following the rhythm of life itself and the changing of society. For we are primarily concerned in the communication between the school and the world: facts from the outer world flow into our classes and there is no event, social, scientific, politic, artistic or simply human, that might not find an echo in the debates, books, posters, enquiries, studies, plays or papers of the school.

Incited by this constant contact with real life, the curiosity of the pupils and their teacher can but be active and transposed into action. This is one of the rules of the method: activity. Knowledge is acquired through activity and not by a passive acceptance of others experiences. And the form of activity will vary with the personality of the pupils and teachers. Work will be organized in various forms: individual work but also team work, personal research of documents, confrontation of these documents, all this will multiply the points of view and also stimulate the interest. Interest is another fundamental impulse to activity and its use makes for the internal continuity of our methods; because any occasional interest derives from the vital interests of mankind that are often obliterated in the adult but are vigorously present in the child, interests that are too often misappreciated.

The 'Centre d'Intérêt' in the Decroly method, studies these fundamental and essential needs, and divides them into four chapters: food; struggle against the enemies; protection against the inclemency of weather; work.

Each of these chapters is studied from the following angles: human organism — animal — plant — society — universe.

For the little child these interests are part of himself, but for the adolescent these problems extend to society and all its problems even as far as its own survival. This way of studying corresponds with the evolution of the structure of the child's personality.

This conception is opposed to the methods that cut the curriculum into separate courses which aim at preparing some particular technique and not a complete and equilibrated formation of the mind.

The 'Centre d'Intérêt' is studied systematically one a year, from the 3rd grade up to the 10th grade in two cycles; the same one for the whole school. This is a factor of coordination between all the classes, as well as between the various courses.

The child learns first to observe and experiment. He builds his knowledge of the world on a line starting from the faculties of observation of immediate facts continuing to their association with facts further away in space and time, then by the expression of the results thus obtained, in function of his own personality.

In the kindergarten everything is done to put the child in constant contact with natural surroundings; the school is in a garden and the children have their own small plot to cultivate, and many domestic animals to feed and keep clean. In the classes there are seeds growing and small animals to look after. Play is part of kindergarten education, because by playing, children develop their imagination, their attention and their social faculties. Small as they are, they are taught to observe and compare, and encouraged to express their ideas.

The young child sees the world first through a global perception, by the means of all his senses and his relations with the environment. Learning to read and write by the ideo-visual method is bound to this observation. The new technique will be immediately linked to the child's interests, as the contents of the text is always close to the concrete situation in which the child finds himself and helps him to express what he sees immediately.

Used to observe and think for himself, the child will develop, following his own aptitude, the faculty to pass from concrete facts to abstract concepts and will gradually acquire the capacity to synthesize.

Children in our school advance towards knowledge following their personal rhythm. They are used to manipulate, first things, then books and to summarize in their copy books, the notions thus acquired.

All the work done in or out of the classroom, in the school or on excursions, is done in a spirit of liberty and responsibility. Liberty and responsibility are always considered together. And this throughout the school: by the teacher, who considers himself as the 'fellow-worker' of his pupils, and by the pupils small and big.

The pupils are in charge of the social organization of the school; during their 12 years at Decroly, they will have learnt the practice of a democratic government. All the offices are elective and everybody in turn has to assume some responsibility, as well in the class, as at the higher level of the whole school. These social activities are a very important part in the child's education and in the term report, there is an appreciation on the way the child has fulfilled these tasks, written by the teacher with the help of the class-mates. The term report is very detailed and gives an account of the child's progress in every course. There are no marks, but always comments; the children are, of course, never classified.

The parents keep in touch with the teachers and see them whenever it seems necessary. There is, and always has been, a very active parents and teachers association, that reflects mutual understanding and appreciation.

The school tries in every way to stand up to its motto: 'Pour la vie, par la vie' and to prepare the pupils to become men and women able to take an active part not only in the world as we see it today, but as it might be tomorrow.

Team teaching in primary schools

Joan Dean
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Team teaching is a phrase which means different things to different people. Certainly the primary schools I know which work on this basis employ many kinds of organisation — it often seems that the only thing they have in common is that they are working with a group of teachers and a group of children instead of on a one teacher/one class principle.

Schools where team or cooperative teaching is working well tend to have a fairly complicated organisation, although what is happening sometimes looks deceptively simple to the casual visitor. Children appear to be working at a wide variety of different activities often without adults. They appear to know what they are doing and where to go and when to go there, although one seldom sees a teacher instructing them in this. The teacher may not be visible at all when one enters the team area because there is no teacher's desk, no focal point for chalk and talk, and much of the teacher's work is done with small groups and individual children. These things seem to be happening in most team areas, whatever the age of the children.

There appear to be two fundamental ways in which team teaching is organised in primary schools. In one form, the space available is set out with particular areas for particular activities. There is generally a basic separation of clean and quiet activities from messy and noisy ones. There may be a book area, an area for work with materials, a space for mathematics and science and perhaps a cooking area, a home corner and other provision according to the age of the children and the interests of the teacher. Each teacher in the team has a pastoral group of children for whose general development* she is responsible. She may also have responsibility for an area of the curriculum where she deals with all the children in the team.

The other approach maintains the idea of

shared functional areas for different activities, but each teacher is responsible for the work of her class group, who will work in all parts of the shared space. The teachers in the team may plan projects and sometimes basic subject work together, so that displays and organisation of work material can serve all the class groups, but each teacher helps her own children to develop the common theme. Some schools are differentiating this form of team teaching from the approach described earlier by calling this cooperative teaching and the other form team teaching.

Many schools make something of a compromise between these two extremes, planning in the light of the particular skills and interests of the teachers and the facilities available to them. There is also a tendency for greater specialisation with the older children.

The general pattern of the day in these schools appears to be one of individual study interspersed with some fixed points for group work. Each child has a series of assignments to complete in the course of a day or week. He has also a number of times with particular teachers for particular work. Mathematics may be dealt with in a series of small groups at roughly similar stages of work, and then each child will be given work according to his need, following work with the teacher. Written English may sometimes be a matter of gathering a group of children together to stimulate them and start them on a piece of work. It may also involve writing started from materials or exhibitions available about the work area or work from a programmed scheme like the S.R.A. Reading Laboratories. Environmental studies may start with a film or a television programme or a visit and the group concerned may meet to plan work, to discuss progress and to draw the work together, while individual children in the group will carry out personal pieces of work contributing to the groups work.

Work in aspects like group music making, physical education, drama and dance must be done with a group, but in the team situation this group can be of any size according to the needs of the children and the work in hand. There will always be someone else to keep an eye on the others and if their work programme is well planned it appears to be possible for them to carry on with little supervision for short periods of time. In fact this organisation offers teachers, for the first time, a chance to consider what different sized groups have to offer in different teaching situations. For the first time it is possible to work or discuss in a small group without consciousness of the remaining children who are supposed to be doing something else. Children may also welcome the chance to get lost in a large group in dance or in watching a film or television programme.

There are other advantages too. The team, once established, can cope much more easily than a one teacher/one class system with staff absences, with changes of staff, with part timers and with inexperienced teachers. When a teacher is away, the work goes on in the same way and it is easier for a replacement teacher to slot into place in a team than for her to take over someone else's class. Young and inexperienced teachers are able to work with more experienced colleagues and can get down to the actual job of getting to know and teach children, without finding themselves bogged down by organisation and discipline problems as is sometimes the case. Students, part time teachers and the head teacher can join in if they have something to offer and visitors to team teaching schools often find themselves in a corner, talking to a group of children who started asking questions.

Team teaching of this kind is not easy to establish. It is a very different way of working, from a class organisation, even from an assignment programme in a single classroom. It requires a good deal of courage on the part of teachers to work in full view of their colleagues, to have assumptions questioned and to find tried ways of working unsuccessful in this new context. It requires also a great deal of preparation before the work begins and a constant observation and evaluation of what is happening and if necessary revision in the light of this. It relies very much more than a class teaching organisation does on the child

being the agent of his own learning. Children in team organisations need to be trained to work independently, whether the teacher is there or not. They must be helped to plan their time and work and to organise themselves. Materials used in this organisation must be self motivating, because only some of the stimulus can come from the teacher and a good deal must be interesting enough in itself to keep children going. Schools working in this way are finding that they need to learn a great deal about what is stimulating in this context, because this is undoubtedly different from what is stimulating when the teacher is behind it.

Materials and equipment need to be very well arranged and organised. Something like a work study needs to take place to see that for each possible activity there is working space and storage and that this is really clear to teachers and children. It must be easy to put something away when it has been used. It becomes essential to train children in social responsibility. The community suffers from its irresponsible members in a team in a way which is less evident when the teacher is able to make continuous checks on the state of the environment and can chase those who are not pulling their weight. In the team the children must learn to look after things whether the teacher is there or not.

A team organisation can make an optimum use of teacher skill and knowledge, and teachers also learn from each other. In one school, for example, where a pair of teachers started off with one dealing with mathematics and the other with English, each gradually became so interested in the work the other was doing that they reorganised to give both a chance to deal with aspects of both subjects. Junior children, in particular, appear to become aware very quickly of what each teacher has to offer by way of skills and knowledge and to use this. Younger children tend to go to the teacher who has what they want in a more personal way and it would seem that when they are given an opportunity to go to one of several adults for some things, they make very definite choices, which could demand a great deal by way of personal maturity on the part of the teachers. It would be very easy to create a situation of rivalry rather than cooperation.

Equipment and books are better used and can be more varied in a team. There are many pieces of equipment which can serve larger numbers of children easily and if children are never taught in large groups there is never a need to buy large numbers of identical books or tools. This makes it possible to provide a greater variety of books and other information sources and a greater variety of tools and materials.

This system also allows different lengths of time for different work according to the needs of individual children. Children gain independence in their learning. They acquire learning skills and a capacity for self organisation which are difficult to achieve otherwise and which are an important foundation for future learning. The teachers gain from discussion about the children and the work in hand. Because the situation is at present new and different and because it involves working with others, it becomes necessary to question many assumptions and to sort out the essential from the inessential. Teachers learn to define problems in a team and to seek solutions for them and to evaluate the results of attempts at problem solving.

There are also disadvantages. This work demands a great deal of teachers and no team will work well unless all members are pulling their weight. It helps the teacher who has discipline problems but offers nothing to the head who hopes it may solve the problem of a lazy teacher. At present there is not a great deal of published material available which can be used to provide individual programmes without modification and this means that teachers must put a good deal of time into making material and sorting out what may be suitable.

It is also important in this organisation to see that no child is lost in the group; that newcomers are inducted into it in such a way that they feel secure. Teachers of young children often feel that security for them can only exist

in a one teacher/one class situation, and that it is probably also necessary for each child to have his own table and chair. A number of schools have found that their children can be secure and settle happily into a situation where they meet several adults, although one may have a special care for them when they first come. Such schools have also come to realise that the other important element in the child's security at this stage is in his knowing the routine; understanding what he may and may not do; knowing where things are to be found and having somewhere to keep his property. Children in these schools seem to find no difficulty in working in a variety of places according to what they are doing, in very much the same way that they might be able to play with bricks on the dining room floor at home, but be expected to go to the kitchen table to paint.

Nevertheless, the security of both children and teachers in this organisation needs to be built carefully and a great deal of preliminary planning is needed if a team is to work well.

* I speak of the teacher as 'she' and the child as 'he' because this is more convenient. What is said applies to teachers and children of both sexes.

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METHUEN

The continuing evolution of school design in Manchester

T. H. Reynolds
Chief Inspector of Schools

Prior to 1960 the design of schools, both primary and secondary, had followed a form which was fairly standardised across the length and breadth of the country. There was a certain inevitability about this under the conditions prescribed by the Department of Education and Science in terms of building schedules. It was also a time when building programmes were heavy, human and material resources limited and a time when there was the urgent need to provide adequate teaching spaces. The population bulge, war damage and rehousing projects were the main factors contributing to the deficiency in school provision. Cost limits were not ungenerous. Essential curriculum requirements were met in terms of practical rooms of good design and well equipped classrooms. The many fine new buildings, both primary and secondary, which were constructed in the immediate post-war period reflected the determination of the period, the determination that all children should be given the best in educational opportunity and that England would not falter for lack of high educational standards.

But educational opportunity cannot be expressed solely in terms of buildings and materials. With the ending of the war social conditions changed, human values changed and there was a surge of technological and scientific advances. Education changed too, with the society it served. Teaching methods were reviewed. Classes in primary schools became smaller. Subject teaching had to be brought up-to-date. Technological aids were coming increasingly to the assistance of the teacher. Old educational maxims were challenged and none more so than the inhibiting belief in innate ability. Perhaps the greatest change was the recognition that personal relationships were of paramount importance in a school community. In the complex situations which emerged the Minister for Education sought advice from the Central Advisory Council for Education and other bodies. A series of national reports, Crowther, Newsom, Albermarle, Plowden, sought to clarify fundamental issues and principles.

By 1960 there was greater appreciation of the fact that design and function had to be developed side by side. The design of a school should be forward looking in the educational sense as well as in the architectural context. The school building should reflect the changes in the concepts of education, the increasing emphasis on the individuality of children and the increasing complexity of a school's organisational pattern. From this date the design of a particular school became a matter for continuous discussion between architects and educationalists, with a building schedule summarising an agreed situation when final plans had been agreed by all parties.

The design of individual schools through a consultative machinery only became practicable because the pressures on architects and administrators had by this time eased. This circumstance also coincided with the establishment of building consortia such as C.L.A.S.P. of which the Manchester Education Committee is a member. The Consortium introduced new building techniques associated with quality of design, high standards of finish, increased flexibility. There was also a very considerable margin of gain in the cost of construction and the time taken to complete the building work.

The first major and fundamental change in the design of a primary school occurred with the adoption of C.L.A.S.P. construction. The first C.L.A.S.P. primary school was opened in April 1966, the design having evolved from discussions between the City Architect and the Chief Education Officer and consultation with a group of Head teachers. The rigid division into classrooms was considerably modified. It was recognised that every teaching space should contribute its full part towards the educational and social welfare of the children. Corridor spaces were considered to be waste spaces contributing little to the usefulness of the building. They were therefore reduced to a minimum and teaching spaces increased proportionately. Class bases were

grouped in pairs, linked with a dual purpose dining and general activity area, to facilitate intermixing within a self contained unit. Dining thus became a social occasion instead of community feeding and the space became available during the day for activities in craft work, art, music, mathematics. The character of the accommodation was adjusted over the age groups to allow the youngest children to adjust easily in the transition from life at home to life at school and to recognise the increasing maturity of the older children. The open library with which every primary school was provided was sited to attract the attention of children. Each classroom extended through double doors to its own terrace and place in the sun. Increasing care was taken in the planning of the outdoor facilities which included seats, ball walls and adventure constructions in addition to the usual playgrounds and grassed areas. Most of these new C.L.A.S.P. schools were built in the central areas of the City where their pleasing appearance has added considerably to the aesthetic values in the neighbourhood. Following a long established tradition the Education Committee has always insisted on a well planned scheme for landscaping the school site, with the planting of trees and shrubs and the provision of gardening areas for the use of the school children.

About 20 C.L.A.S.P. primary schools are now in use with design factors of increasing sophistication. During the last five years the modifications have moved progressively towards the open plan primary school, particularly so in the infant section of the schools.

In the 1968-69 major building programme of the Authority approval was given for a one-form entry primary school with nursery accommodation. This school is a voluntary aided school sponsored and built by the Roman Catholic Diocese of Salford and maintained by the Manchester Local Education Authority. It is named St. Thomas of Canterbury Roman Catholic Primary School and it is sited in Cheetham within an educational priority area. This school is in many ways experimental and represents the most advanced stage of thinking in primary school buildings at present in the Authority.

Recognising that the new school must anticipate the future, meet the requirements of all that is best in modern teaching methods and yet provide structural durability, maximum teaching area and internal flexibility, the Diocesan Schools Commission invited a number of people to form an Advisory Panel. The Panel included officers and inspectors of the Department of Education and Science, officers and inspectors of three local authorities, primary school teachers, staff of colleges of education, officers of the Manchester City Architect's Department and the Manchester Parks Department, and representatives of the associated architect, The Ellis-Williams Partnership. The Advisory Panel produced an educational brief for the guidance of the architects, largely influenced by the recommendations of the Plowden Report.

The nursery unit is designed for a maximum attendance at any time of 40 children from the 58 on roll, some of whom will be part-time. The unit is self contained but continuous with the infant section so that the children can feel part of the larger community. There are two carpeted home bases to give a home-like environment where children can listen to stories or take part in quiet activities. A feature of the nursery is the den or cabin, fitted with bunks, to which children can withdraw for rest or to pursue personal interests. In the attractive paved courtyard special consideration has been given to the provision for animals and the problems of keeping them. Both indoor and outdoor stores cater for the storage of bulky play materials and they are fitted with mobile storage units as well as fixed cupboards. Only a minority of the nursery group will stay for the mid-day meal which is carried from the main kitchen on a heated trolley to the playroom.

The infant section is designed so that all members of staff work as a team yet can have a particular relationship with a small group of children. For the 120 children four home bases are provided each of individual design, and the nature of these social groups can be determined by the Head and staff. Wet and

dry practical areas, and project areas are readily accessible from the home bases and offer a continuity of learning experiences. Dining is in the dry practical area with direct access to the kitchen. By the clever use of levels a large den is provided below one of the home bases and by the skilful use of built in furniture and light effects an atmosphere of intimacy is created.

The recognition of education as a continuous process has been an important theme on the design of St. Thomas of Canterbury R.C. Primary School. Between the infant and junior sections a transition area is provided as a link so that children can be introduced slowly to the more specialist activities of the junior school and to increasing responsibility.

For the top three age groups of the junior school specially designed areas provide for the senior specialist areas of the curriculum such as mathematics, science, art, craft and music, all jointly shared by the social groups based on four carpeted areas of individual design. Though largely open plan in concept social groups can find quiet and isolation by the use of movable screens. The teaching of foreign language and the increasing use of audio-visual equipment has been recognised by the provision of an audio-visual room. Circulation space has been put to good use to provide dining space and library activity areas.

It was considered as a matter of importance that the school should be an integral part of the parish community and that the school should be designed and provided with facilities which would encourage parental participation in the work of the school. There is a social room specially for parents with practical facilities in a work area to enable mothers to sew and fathers to undertake simple constructional jobs. The hall is also designed as a sports centre and there is no obstacle to prevent its use by children in the evenings and weekends. An area of the playground, part of which has been designed as an adventure playground with open air theatre, could also be used profitably by the community beyond the school day.

Before moving on to describe the developments in building design for secondary schools brief reference must be made to that very important innovation which now goes by the name of a learner swimming pool. The Authority has constructed two learner swimming pools on the sites of well established primary schools, one in the North of the City and one in the South. The pools are of simple construction and are quite shallow. They are designed to enable infant age and junior age children to learn how to swim with confidence and without fear. This they certainly achieve. The pools are in constant use and with the active support and interest of the parents most of the children learn to swim before they leave the infant section of the primary school.

The most interesting of the forward looking building projects which is at present on the stocks in Manchester is an urban community project in the Cheetham Crumpsall district and which at the present time goes by the name of the Cheetham/Crumpsall Project. The proposal has been approved by the City Council and the Department of Education and Science and it has now reached an advanced state of planning. This Project is an extension of the community schemes which began a long time ago with the village college movement of Henry Morris in the rural area of Cambridgeshire. More recently the idea has been developed in various forms, notably at the Egremont School in Cumberland, the Dunkeries Comprehensive School which shares a campus with a College for Further Education and various community sports and recreation centres.

There was need in the Cheetham/Crumpsall district for a large comprehensive school and a college of further education and it was recognised that this underprivileged area lacked many social amenities. Instead of constructing two separate buildings, which has been the customary and isolating practice in the past, it was decided to examine the needs of the community as a whole and see whether they could be best met by a simple multi-structured building. The advantages of:

(a) a more economic investment of capital

resources, more intensive use of buildings and perhaps some revenue savings by better planning of the services;

(b) closer contact between school and further education and home and therefore a better yield in educational terms;

(c) a school with greater relevance, in curricula and activities, to the neighbourhood it serves;

(d) improved educational opportunities for citizens of all ages;

(e) a closer relationship between the various committees and departments of the Corporation which were involved with the Project.

Once the Project was launched the community needs, beyond the school/college requirements, extended to a library and resources centre, a sports and recreation centre, recreation grounds and field, an arts and social centre, a club house for old people, accommodation for youth work, a short stay residential block for about 12 pupils, a nursery care unit and accommodation for parents. The Corporation Committees for Libraries, Parks, Children's Care and Baths became involved partners in the enterprise with the Education Committee. For example, the library and resources centre is to provide lending, reference and study facilities for school, college and students of all ages, and it will be staffed and serviced by the libraries department of the Corporation.

The building has been designed as a single unit in a joint enterprise between the Department of Education and Science, the City Architect of Manchester, the Education Department and other Departments of the Manchester Corporation. The 11-15 element has been made self-contained except for sports/drama/music activities. What might be called the 'school centre' would be the home base for the pupils for the major part of the week. In the 11-13 centre Plowden considerations and the concepts of the middle school have largely influenced the planning. Pupils between the ages of about 15 to 19 years have been brought together to avoid the separation which is usually forced upon contemporaries at the school leaving age. The break at 15 is intended to smooth the transition from school to further education, encouraging more pupils to continue their full time education beyond 15 and 16 years and to bring about better understanding between students who proceed to higher education and those who do not. The further education courses which will be provided in the Cheetham/Crumpsall Project include engineering, business studies, adult education, hairdressing and science.

The difficulties in co-ordination between the different partners has proved less formidable than was at one time forecast. Some still have to be resolved such as the differences between school regulations and further education regulations which are administered by different branches of the Department of Education and Science. The same kind of difficulties may arise when the Project is in operation and worked by staff employed on different salary scales and conditions of service. But the Authority is confident that these difficulties can be resolved by discussion, co-operation and understanding. Certainly the staff, if the scheme is to be successful, must feel members of one body. The lead in such matters begins at the top, and the Director of the whole complex will be supported by a Deputy Director of Studies and a Deputy Director of Administration. To this end it is intended, subject to exigencies, to have a staff and management structure which will give recognition to the varying roles of the members of staff but at the same time ensure that they become involved at some level in the partnership of management, whether they are employed by the Libraries Committee of the Education Committee or whether they are concerned mainly with the schools element or the sports centre or a further education department.

Instant Learning — are we exploiting children?

Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of O.M.E.P. London, November 1968

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I have chosen three of today's key words to introduce this topic: **'WITH IT', 'INSTANT',** and **'MINI'.** 'With-it' I take to mean popular, fashionable; 'instant' to mean immediate, at once, now; and 'mini', of course, condensed, abreviated, and, it is almost axiomatic today that this word also means attractive. But the question I want to put is this: Are we justified in using such concepts in the context of pre-school education and in making such concepts viable criteria for evaluating the work of Nursery Schools, Pre-schools, Kindergartens etc? Do we, in fact, support the popular in order to be 'with-it', the immediate or 'instant' results because they effect economy in time and money, the 'mini' or condensed type of education or training because it is eye-catching and dramatic?

These three concepts are in fact being put forward as not only acceptable but preferable to the more child-centred, individualizing traditional concepts of pre-school education, which in contrast are described as out of date, long drawn-out unproductive and extravagant by the 'instant learning' advocates. I was told by an American professor that education today was GREEN in America i.e. the dollar being green, the cheaper 'instant' type of education was an easier 'sell' as a 'packaged-deal' to local authorities than the traditional nursery-school education particularly so in the Head-Start programme. **Not** that I want to suggest that all the Head-Start programmes for disadvantaged children in America are of the 'instant learning' variety; this is not the case.

Man has come a long way as a result of evolutionary history. The human individual is essentially a mental being — he has his own individual mind and personal history and is the product of generations of ancestors who have lived before him contributing to the pool of talent and potential. In his early history man learned to use tools and with this skill came experience which led, after time, to the use of signs and symbols — the mental process whereby objects and signs stand for other things. Man is a symbol-making animal — he is capable of the mental processes of representation and symbolisation, of the creative act in all its manifold richness and variety so ably described by Arthur Koestler in 'The Act of Creation'. But as Henri Bergson reminds us in 'Creative Evolution' the human mind has undergone much conditioning in the course of man's evolution — this clearly is not to be denied—man is a social animal, he learns from others. However, for Bergson the world is in a state of flux, or it would be more correct to say the world is a state of flux. Life if it could be seen and understood in all its complexities would be confusing, overwhelming in its impact. Man is saved from this overwhelming impact by the selectivity of his sensory experience. Through the mediating function of the association areas of the higher brain; he can carve out of this unending flow of events bits and pieces which he calls material objects and events. Bergson writes: 'If matter appeared to us as a perpetual flowing we should assign no termination to any of our actions . . . '. In order that our activity may leap from an act to an act it is necessary that matter should pass from state to state. Further Bergson points out that the intellect is particularly in its element when it is concerning itself with matter and he explains that this is entirely natural, since material objects in the shape of food, clothing and shelter are our most urgent requirements. He writes: 'When we pass in review the intellectual functions we see that the intellect is never quite at its ease, never entirely at home, except when it is working upon (mere) matter, more particularly with solids . . . '

Kenneth Walker, the physiologist, writing in 'Life's Long Journey', enlarges this point by referring to what he describes as man's low level of consciousness which permits him to simplify and so manage to construct his picture or model of the material world. He writes: Man stirs himself and becomes aware of himself and his existence, his mind is liable to

reflect on his curious situation and so many puzzles immediately present themselves that he becomes overwhelmed and confused and is glad to slide back again into the waking-sleep in which he was previously immersed, dreaming his own dreams of life."

There is a clearly marked disparity in man's knowledge of himself and of the material world around him; being primarily a maker and doer rather than a thinker he knows far more about inanimate matter than about himself.

The physical sciences, physics, chemistry, astronomy etc. are far more advanced than sciences which deal with living beings. However, man is trying very hard to increase his knowledge and understanding of himself. He is making studies in biology, physiology, psychology and now sociology — this is the age of the psycho-social revolution and man's increasing awareness of himself. Man is gaining knowledge from his study of the lower and higher animals and is also using his fellow men and children for experimental and behavioural studies.

Concern is felt by some people that man's highly complex potentiality for feeling, thought and self-awareness is being dangerously over simplified in relation to knowledge derived from the study of animals and their potentiality for learning as a result of certain conditioning techniques. Some animals can be easily conditioned to perform certain types of behaviour by the technique known as 'operant conditioning', this means that a normal pattern of behaviour is rewarded by the trainer, leading to repetition of the behaviour and the possibility of the pattern being 'shaped' by repeated rewards (and punishment, if necessary) until the desired behaviour is attained. We are familiar with the work of Skinner in this field and may have seen his film depicting how he trained pigeons to 'dance' in a figure of eight as a result of rewarding (reinforcing) each separate movement made in the right direction. It is noted that pigeons will go on pecking for food rewards until they drop from exhaustion.

It is important to note that reinforcement, that is external incentive, is necessary to maintain this type of conditioned response — without adequate reinforcement the behaviour becomes extinguished.

Children's behaviour is, of course, to a certain extent conditioned in this way in normal everyday life situations — desirable forms of behaviour are rewarded i.e. approved of by significant adults and thereby reinforced but this is not the only kind of experience a developing human being meets in life.

A point to note here is that man, being a symbol-making animal, is innately capable of acquiring speech in contrast to animals and birds who can be trained to imitate sounds — though animals undoubtedly have other means of communication. A child is capable of extending his thinking beyond the here and now, and of developing a rich and varied imagination, but the technique of 'operant conditioning' if effective with a child (dangerously effective one may say) will step-lock his behaviour in line with that considered desirable by his conditioner, the child may become, like the computer, dependent on the programme fed in to him — we just do not know what effect reinforcing one particular aspect of behaviour will have during a sensitive growth period.

Man is capable of creative thought in art, music, craft and poetry — even his scientific and mathematical work can be creative — Kenneth Barnes writes in 'The Creative Imagination', 'Science is not just a matter of ascertaining facts; it involves an activity of the mind in which facts are linked together in an imaginative pattern . . . An original creative scientist must be a man who can dream dreams, see patterns forming in his imagination, think and imagine ideas and patterns that no one has ever thought of before, that are not given in the facts he observes.'

In brief we can recall the words of Albert Einstein, one of the greatest of scientists which Clive Sansom, the poet, thinks should be carved above all institutions of learning! 'Imagination is more important than knowledge.' Clive Sansom spoke on this matter in

Hobart in his lecture entitled 'The Shaping Spirit' from Coleridge's poem — ' . . . What nature gave me at my birth, my shaping spirit of Imagination'. He went on to say, 'Perhaps the most important quality required today — when, in the popular mind, the symbol of a whiterobed chemist is replacing that of the black-robed priest — is **humility.** There is no room for arrogance in the universe we are uncovering, no assumption of unlimited knowledge and infallibility. After all we have not created the universe, we are simply observing it and what we know is a mere fraction of what exists to be known. Moreover, there are whole areas which science hardly touches.' He stresses the qualitative aspects of human life. 'Feelings, desires, thoughts, aspirations and ideals are not the concern of science, and only to a limited extent the concern of psychology . . . the element which we describe as values, sensitivity to beauty, the qualities of compassion, of kindness and of self-sacrifice, the high attainment of wisdom, of which the expression is found in intuitive insights — these, which are the highest achievements of individuals, are not within its ken.'

As Susanne Langer reminds us the thing that started humanity on its career as something more than an animal species, was the development of symbolic expression and symbolic understanding, 'Language has given us a means of communication with each other, and above all the power of thought, the awareness of many things at once which are not all given together in experience, and the power of conceiving things and conditions which do not exist at all — the power of symbolism creates the need of symbols. We need to live in the conceptual framework of a world much larger than the environment we sensuously perceive or realize from moment to moment.' Man inevitably lives mentally beyond the here and now.

Turning from man's racial evolution to his individuality we can trace the genetic growth of the creative imagination in the young child. Recent research has given us significant information on the young babies visual experience from soon after birth. From James' 'buzzing booming confusion' we can now say that the baby seeks and prefers varied and interesting patterned visual stimulus and fixates visually from an early age — he is hungry for visual experience. Gesell said 'He picks up the world with his eyes long before he picks it up with his hands.' He smiles at his mother's face from four to six weeks mirroring her expression and he responds to her as a person within the first two months discriminating known for unknown faces and showing apprehension when confronted by strangers between five and seven months. Increased hand and eye co-ordination around five months permits him to grasp objects within his reach and practising this skill he eagerly brings them to his mouth to taste and feel their texture. From play with objects bringing them together, banging them etc., he moves to casting them from him, a result of the development of voluntary release. He enjoys casting things away and making them disappear from his immediate view. He is greatly excited by the game of 'peep-bo' — why does this behaviour appear at this stage? Perhaps because he is developing the ability to image objects— to build an image in his mind when the object no longer exists in his visual field. This skill will not be fully developed until about a year/eighteen months when the baby will search for objects he has seen hidden gradually extending the time he holds the object in mind. At eight months, or so, objects hidden from his view appear to cease to exist, he cannot hold them in his mind. Soon he will pull out a toy from under his pillow if he sees it hidden as Piaget's children did to their Dad's watch when the chain was left showing after the watch was hidden. Later a child will look under a second pillow when he does not find the object under the first. Whereas earlier he would look only in the place where he saw it first hidden. This whole very important sequence was studied very carefully by Piaget with his own three children and is written up in 'The Construction of Reality in the Child'. We carry our notion of reality about with us in our mind, i.e. it is a mental construct or schema.

About the same time as the child develops the power of holding an image of the absent object in his mind (the concept of 'object con-

stancy') we see the first signs of creative imaginative play. Alongside the developing capacity for imagery the emotional life of the child is developing with inevitable conflict arising from his dependency and the need for independence and self-assertion. At this time creative imaginative play becomes deeply satisfying to the child, providing a release from tension and later a means of sharing fantasy life with other children — feelings can be represented symbolically, they can be externalised in fantasy play and dealt with in a constructive way.

Just as if all this rich mental development was not sufficient for a small child from one to two years, it is during this second year that the symbolism of language becomes organized and related to meaningful situations reinforced by the delight of the parents and their response. Babbling, at first a biological necessity, soon leads to vocalizing and during the first year the child listens to his own speech sounds and from an early age imitates them. He practices the complex neuro-motor movements and listens to his parents who will 'talk' to him providing him with models which he will gradually learn to imitate when supported by their approval and encouragement. Again we find the creative element: David (fourteen months) called all vehicles that he watched going by from the window of his flat over a busy street 'go-goes'. His dinner was called 'bib-bon' perhaps associated with having his bib put on before eating at that time. While a child of eighteen months called all puddles 'Quick-quack' for a time, related to feeding the ducks where the river Thames overflowed its banks on to the footpath. Some two-word sentences at this early stage show evidence of original thought. By three years for many children the mastery of basic syntax will enable the child to use speech correctly and creativity. By four and a half to five years he will in addition begin to represent his ideas imaginatively through the two-dimensional process of drawing in outline and in painting. A tremendous achievement this, of course he draws what he knows rather than what he sees. We had a helpful example of this on a recent television programme when a child was asked about his outline drawing of a car which showed four wheels. Could he in fact see the four wheels of a car? When he said 'No' he was asked why he had drawn four wheels in a line on the base of his car, and he replied, 'Because it wouldn't go if it didn't have four wheels!'

The work of Piaget has shown the importance of action in learning; he has shown that the child needs to associate his speech and his action if he is to develop the power of logical thought — handling materials, altering their shape, pouring liquids from one container to another considering whether the amount is conserved i.e. whether the amount, or number is the same when re-grouped. The teacher needs to provide varied experience and the necessary vocabulary to assist the development of the child's thought at the reality level. Much work is needed here in studying children's forms of spontaneous language, and in providing experience which requires the use of oral skills. The teacher needs to become more conscious of her role in stimulating thought and language, influencing without interfering, and developing what Martin Buber describes as dialogue, valued by the children because of the human element and because of the reassurance that he can think and begin to solve problems for himself. She needs to develop skill in listening to children's speech, listening may be the basis for an exciting study of expressive language in action; much can be learnt of the complex nature of human relationships and of the child's attitude to himself, his problems and anxieties. John Mark (age five years) gives us an example of this kind of experience. He is sitting in his classroom, a scene of varied activity, at the end of a table where two children are playing with Poleidoblocs. He has a few odd pieces of 'junk' material in front of him, a couple of cigarette boxes, sellotape etc., but his expression and posture indicate that he is withdrawn and concerned with his own thoughts. He takes no notice of the other children or adults. I asked them, 'What is that boy's name?' 'John Mark,' said one of the children. 'Does he speak?' 'Yes,' they said. I went over to him and sat down saying, 'Can I help you?' 'I want to make a boat,' he said. We moved the boxes around. 'I want some glue — will you ask the

teacher for some glue?' he asked. I suggested he should ask himself, there was a pause and he did not move. THEN he began to speak very quickly, 'I had a horrible dream last night — it frightened me — some birds kept flying at me — they kept coming at me — I was trying to get away,' pause, he remained silent. I said, 'Yes, we do have dreams sometimes when we go to sleep,' another pause, 'Did you wake up?' John Mark, 'Yes, I woke up and called for my Mummie but she didn't come,' pause, 'Perhaps she was asleep?' 'Yes . . . the birds kept coming at me — they were in the house — they were behind the door and the shelves, they kept coming at me,' pause — 'There was a fox in the house and he smacked them, he smacked their bottoms, then they stopped coming at me for a while.'

After this long story about his dream we were working on the boxes together without really achieving anything when John Mark returned to the theme of his dream: 'Those birds they screamed at me like this . . . " He screamed in a high-pitched way very loudly and then stopped abruptly looking at me. 'Did you wake up then?' I asked. 'Yes,' he said. Later he went on, 'I will make a boat with this' (a cigarette box), he then cut it up. Later he said, 'I couldn't have any glue, there wasn't any.'

I told his young, sensitive teacher about his dream. She said she would notice if John wanted to tell her about it again. John remembered after a gap of three or four weeks that he had told me about his dream. Here we have an example of a child trying to come to terms with his inner world of fantasy through thoughts and words that he shares with an adult.

A marked contrast to this approach in the education of young children comes from the experimental school of psychology — the extreme behaviour-conditioning school exemplified by Carl Bereiter and Siegfried Englemann working on what they describe as academic programmes for culturally deprived pre-school children in Pennsylvania and New York.

The operant conditioning, or 'shaping' by means of rewards type of learning advocated by Bereiter and Englemann in the United States with their intensive verbal conditioning programme cuts right across present knowledge of young children's learning processes. It is being introduced just at the time when the action/thought, concrete operations stage of Piaget's continuum in cognitive development is getting into its stride in the modern work in maths and science teaching and engages in 'verbal bombardment' and identity drill by means of naming and categorization as a deliberate attempt to 'speed up instruction' through verbal programming.

Chapter five in their book is headed 'Basic Teaching Strategies'. It is suggested that the teacher should study and use these chapters as she would a detailed cook-book!

The following is a sample presentation that 'will provide an idea of the size of units (of teaching) that are used by a polished teacher'. (Bereiter and Englemann).

The task being presented is that of identifying and classifying things as weapons or non-weapons.

Presentation	Reasons
Teacher (presents picture of rifle). This is a . .	She begins with no verbal explanation
Child B. Gun. Teacher. Good, it is a gun.	She would have favoured the word rifle, but she uses gun and she praises the child.
Teacher. Let's all say it: This is a gun, this is a gun. Again, this is a gun.	The children seem uninterested — many motivating devices are possible — she tests attention by the following device:
Teacher: Let's say it one more time. This is an alligator. Child D. It ain't neither. It a gun.	

Teacher. That's what I said, I said, 'This is a bulldog'.
Children A, B, C, D, E. No, no it ain't no bulldog. That a gun.

All the children are interested now. They are aware of the sham battle of wits and they enjoy it.

Teacher. Okay, I'll start again. This is a gun. Is that right?

The children are now attentive. The teacher has already spent over a minute winning the children. She does not want to lose them, so she moves on fast.

Teacher. This is a weapon. This is a gun. This is a weapon.
Child D. No, it ain't a weapon.

Teacher (presents picture of knife, cannon, pistol). This is a weapon. Say it with me. This is a weapon. This is a weapon. These are weapons. Let's hear that last one again. Make it buzz. These are weaponzzz.

Note she does not argue with Child D. because time would be lost.

Teacher (refers to knife). This weapon is a . . . who knows?
Child E. A knife.
Teacher. Yes, a knife. Again, this weapon is a knife . . . and so on! This technique continues on these lines for several pages.

She beat the children to the punch here. She presented a full acknowledgement in one statement at the same time she let the children show off their knowledge about the knife.

(This programme provides intensive academic, verbal drill in shifts of twenty minutes with three different teachers covering language skills and arithmetic. No time is given for play, art or craft, though there are short singing sessions.

Children are at first rewarded with candy on production of the right answer but later are expected to wait for their reward until the end of the session. Unco-operative children are to be punished by lack of reward, or if behaviour is undesirable by physical punishment. 'The purpose of punishment is to deter the child from behaving in an undesirable way — punishment, in other words, should hurt.') Bereiter and Englemann.

Teacher SHOUTS, children SHOUT back — they must shout in this method according to the inventors otherwise they do not make the necessary effort. Effort for what, we may ask? For verbal rote-learning, step-locked to a programme of verbal conditioning aimed to train the mind to identify and categorize, presumably as a basis on which to build logical reasoning later.

Naturally when these children are tested in this limited measurable field in which they have been drilled they will perform at a higher level than those who have had a more active, varied and creative type of pre-school education. BUT on what basis will these children develop their powers of reflective thinking which is closely related to their own action/learning and spontaneous speech? Where will the education of the emotions come in? How will John Mark be helped to understand about dreams and fears of birds that keep flying at you? When will there be time to permit the teacher to **listen to the children** and learn of their inner lives? What opportunity will there be for the development of the creative power of the mind to produce such poetry as Irene wrote at six years in her New Zealand school.

> 'The blue heron stands in the early world looking like a freezing blue cloud in the morning".

What is the underlying framework of thought for further development here? What happens to children's minds when they are conditioned and reinforced in such a limited area? Are we not exploiting these disadvantaged children in America for the sake of a limited measurable advance in the field of verbal behaviour? Are we not pushing the clock back fifty years when the louder the children shouted the more successful the teacher was considered? Have we learnt nothing of the dangers of this kind of conditioning from our failure in maths' teaching over the past 50 years? Research in America states that the professionally trained teacher is not suitable for this intensive verbal teaching. Of course, the teacher must be intensively conditioned herself first!

What then should we be doing in the field of compensatory education? I suggest we should be using the skills already developed by the Nursery/Infant teacher of providing a suitably stimulating environment, plus careful observation of children. We need to increase interaction between child and adult, to introduce where necessary more adults into the school, to increase our sensitivity to the child's level and style of thinking. Professionally we should involve the teacher in a depth study of thought and language and increase awareness of linguistic patterns in relation to contextual situations and explore all methods available for simple record-keeping, using the data for discussion and analysis, if this is thought to be valuable. Teachers today welcome liason with responsible research workers in education.

Teachers and researchers must work together to study the complex field of thought and language in the same way as thirty years ago teachers were introduced in their professional training to the complexities of the young child's emotional/social development. This extension in our professional understanding received stimulus from the emergency of the Second World War — today's situation is another kind of emergency. There is an urgent need for closer collaboration between the disciplines concerned in Education and the teacher's confronting these problems in the classroom.

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In the May issue we planned to include our first 'World Studies' supplement. We present it in June. The delay is due to the intensive world studies programme of our chairman and the editor of the supplement. We welcome this first joint issue and our new readers. The operation has been pleasant and has worked smoothly very largely due to the personality of our chairman of the editorial board. He expects peace and often gets it.

This June issue has grown together in absolute anarchy. The thought of the world on the primary school certainly takes space to explain, and the permissive attitudes to education have strayed into the production line of this issue. Everyone save the administrative secretary and the editor appears to have been sending copy to the printer. It would not surprise us to find a late contribution at this moment, unbeknown to us, being prepared for the printer by a middle grade official in a continental booking office in Afghanistan. Where all the copy has come from is uncertain but the abundance and the richness of much new material is undeniable. We have had to decide to print much reporting on experiment in the field which is coming in in response to the letter we sent to L.E.A.'s in the July issue and to aim to have this issue out before the conference on July 24th at Froebel Education Institute, Roehampton Lane, London S.W.15. This issue will give an insight into personal experiment in the field and what is happening now, rather than present a background of theory.

The printer, despite the fact that he is using a new type face and has only one machine available and one operator, has shown great forebearance over the influx of copy and the capacity for afterthoughts on the part of contributors. But we do not think he would be happy to live in anarchy for long.

LETTER TO THE EDITOR

Somerset County Council
Education Department
Chief Education Officer: Robert Parker OBE, MA
County Hall, Taunton

6 May 1970

Dear Miss Fisher,

In reply to your letter dated February 1970, I am writing to inform you that we are proposing to employ a 'Mobile Pre-School Playgroups Supervisor' from the 1st September 1970, for a two-year trial period.

It is hoped that the Supervisor will have Nursery Teachers' qualifications as well as some experience with Playgroups and she will be paid according to the Burnham Scale plus a Scale I allowance.

The Supervisor will travel in the North East of Somerset and will establish playgroups in villages where there is a demand for them but no qualified person to take charge. For eight sessions per week she will be either the playgroup leader or the tutor to the mothers. It is envisaged that eventually a mother, or group of mothers, will be capable of taking over the complete organisation of the group, thus enabling the Supervisor to establish other groups in the area. In the remaining two sessions per week the Supervisor will lecture at an F. E. Centre on topics associated with her work and take care of the general day-to-day running of the scheme.

The Karnegie United Kingdom Trust have generously contributed £2,500 per annum for the two year trial period and the Billy Butlin Trust have provided a grant of £250 to help start the experiment. E.S.A. have promised to provide the equipment necessary to start the project on extended loan. The equipment will be taken from group to group in a van, to be purchased by Somerset County Council, until the groups have had time to provide their own.

There will be close liaison between the Education Department and the Health Department during the experiment; the scheme was originated by Dr B. M. Thompson, Senior Medical Officer for Maternal and Child Health Services and Mrs Brenda Crowe, National Adviser for the Pre-School Playgroups Association, has been very helpful with advice from time to time.

Yours sincerely,

P. INGHAM,

for Chief Education Officer.

Making a Nativity Film

A Class Project with nine-year-olds and their parents

M. A. Kirke

Soon after the beginning of the Autumn term (1969) I had the idea of making something for parents to see when they visited the School at the end of term. Two or three months before, I had bought my first second-hand cine camera, and tried, without much success, to run a film club once a week after school with some of the older children. I had no previous experience of cine-cameras, and there was not nearly enough time in the one period a week to make what we intended — an adventure story written by the children. So I decided I would simply make some sort of exhibition for the parents, in which a short piece of film could be shown.

At the same time, I was becoming interested in stories used for religious teaching throughout the world. The idea of a nativity play, with some film, began to grow in my mind.

I spoke about my ideas to my nine-year-old class. I read them the story from the gospels of Matthew and Luke. Two or three children said after I had finished, 'That was a good story.' I asked if there were any of them who hadn't heard the story before. To my astonishment, half a dozen hands went up.

I decided immediately that a nativity play by the children in my class, or even a complete film, would be a very good idea. In the next day or two I began to talk to the children about it, and we planned what characters would be needed. I began to think about music. Could I make a sound track? Could it be synchronised accurately enough for a dialogue to be filmed and recorded?

At this stage I began to realize that I should need help if I were going to film the whole of the nativity story. Where were the outdoor scenes going to be shot? How would we get there? Who knew about make-up? How would the costumes be made, the scenery backdrops be painted? Where would the props come from? I decided to ask the parents to help in a very active way: this would be much better than having them just come to school to see something.

I planned a scenario to fix characters, scenes. We began to practise Christmas carols and hymns. In class we tackled the script-writing: I gave detailed descriptions of the scenes for which I felt dialogue was necessary; the children then wrote the dialogue. From their writings a script began to be assembled.

The headmaster agreed to my sending out a circular letter. I wrote to all the parents:

> 8 10 69
>
> Dear Mr and Mrs . . .
>
> As some of you have already heard from your children, we are planning a Christmas Nativity Play in the form of a film of the story of the birth of Jesus, to be made by the children of our class. The film used will be standard 8 mm.
>
> I should be interested to hear from any parents who would be able to help with the production. Help is needed in these ways:
>
> 1. Supply old sheets, large and small pieces of unwanted cloth, curtains etc. for costumes.
> 2. Make costumes.
> 3. Come to School on occasional evenings to assist with scenery production etc.
> 4. Accompany children on 'location' work in evenings or at weekends (no nights away from home).
> 5. Provide transport for item (4).
> 6. Assist with make-up.
> 7. Assist with technical matters — recording, photography, lighting — during filming in evenings or at weekends.
> 8. Lend (for several weeks) a good strong camera tripod.
> 9. Supply left-over, part or full tins of paint (especially emulsion), unwanted wallpaper etc.
> 10. Lend (for one or two occasions only) various items of furnishings: a long car-

pet; some rugs; a plain stool or pouffe; a thin mattress; simple articles of pottery (big earthenware jug or ewer and bowl).

I will send a working schedule to any parent who offers help, and arrange convenient meeting times for those who offer to be present at production operations.

To get the film completed by the beginning of December, we should begin now. You will understand this when you consider that even when all the film has been shot and all recordings made, there is still processing, cutting and editing to be done before the film can be shown.

Please will you put a tick against any of the items above in which you feel you could help (both mothers and fathers!) and return this letter to me as soon as you can.

Yours sincerely,

Malcolm Kirk.

I began casting. Volunteers for each part were asked for, and for the technical jobs too. Everyone was to have either a job, or a part, or both. Understudies were appointed for each part. Auditions were brief and informal. Soon everybody had some idea of what they were going to be asked to do.

When the replies to the letters were all in, they were tabulated, and I could see that I was going to get the support I needed. It looked like this:

Supply materials	25
make costumes	3
come to school	6
accompany children	5
make-up	3
technical assistance	0
tripod	2
paint, paper	24
furnishings	7
transport	5
letters unreturned	6
negative replies	3

I then sent another letter:

Dear Parents,

I was very pleased indeed with the response you made to my request for help with the production of our Nativity Film. In particular I want to thank those of you who have offered to take an active part, such as coming to the School in evenings and at weekends, providing transport, lending your premises and equipment, assisting with make-up etc. Without all this assistance the film could not be made.

If you have offered to supply materials, paint or paper, please let your child bring them to school now. If the quantity is too great, tell your child to ask me to collect it. We are particularly in need of emulsion paint or oil-based water paint such as Walpamur. We would also like to borrow some brightly coloured or plain pieces of material such as bath towels, shawls, and net curtains. Anything which you need back again should have a note pinned to it with your name on. It will then have a name tape sewn on by the wardrobe mistress and returned to you when it is no longer needed.

At the end of the week, a schedule will be sent to you showing the general plan of production. More detailed information will be sent to those parents who are taking an active part.

We hope you will be able to let your children come to the School at the times when they are needed to do their jobs or act their parts. The 'technical staff' in particular will have heavy demands made on them in the next few weeks.

Yours sincerely . . .

We concentrated now on getting the music under way and the two 'recording engineers' trained. They had to be able to operate the Ferrograph without supervision and to cut and join magnetic tape efficiently. Whenever we had music rehearsals, we took the tape recorder along and recorded. I had to start to train the children to follow my silent gestures instead of verbal instructions, and I began to

appreciate the problems of the conductor. We practised descant singing; our recorders numbered about nine; one boy played the piano a little and learned quickly, with considerable musical talent. I made arrangements of carols and hymns in three parts or with percussion instruments.

We began painting scenery. For this we used white or coloured emulsion paint helped out by the addition of powder tempera colours from the class supply. Three or four boys and myself worked on Saturday mornings and weekday evenings to get the scenes painted. Painting on a large scale like this was new to all of us: I found it much easier than the usual scale; the children seemed at first to find it harder: for them, drawing seemed to be naturally a process of miniaturisation, but perhaps it was because they do not normally have opportunity to draw and paint things their actual size. Our backdrops were about 14 ft. x 10 ft.

I worked out an approximate time-table for filming, over four or five weeks. I had to check on the availability of pupils, so that I did not clash with Cubs, Boys' Brigade, Country Dancing etc. The promised schedule was sent out:

Dear Parents,
Here is the schedule I promised you a few days ago.

SO FAR

1. Most of the dialogue has been written. The children have written most, I have written some and the rest has been taken from the Gospels of St. Matthew and St. Luke.
2. The sequence of scenes has been planned out, and the accompanying soundtrack has been planned.
3. There are 4 scene backdrops. One has been completed, a second nearly finished and the paper for the other two assembled.
4. Practise has been going on for some time on the musical items. I hope that **all** the music will be sung and played by the children using recorders, piano, chime bars and unpitched percussion instruments.
5. Most of the titles have been filmed.

FOR THE NEXT FEW WEEKS (probably four) we will concentrate on filming. All filming should be finished by **Nov. 15th.**

While the film is being processed, the RECORDING of musical items can still continue. This should be finished by **Dec. 1st.**

CUTTING AND EDITING of film and soundtrack will proceed during the week **Dec. 1 to 7th.** Practise showings will take place the next week. By this time we shall know whether all our efforts have met with success. We should be able to give showings to invited audiences in the **week Dec. 15th to 21st.**

We have received enough materials to make costumes now; though if anything especially gorgeous comes along we could certainly use it. No more wallpaper or gloss paint is needed; but bright colours of emulsion are still needed.

Several costumes need to be made up still: I will arrange for this to be done in the next few days.

In general, filming will take place on **Oct.** 18, 21, 23, 24, 26, 28, 31; **Nov.** 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12. The Tuesday and Thursday sessions will be in school, the rest 'on location'. Cameramen, continuity girls and clapper girl will be needed at all sessions; wardrobe girls and make-up experts will be needed at all sessions where there are live characters.

I hope to be in touch with all of you who have volunteered to take an active part, in the next few days, to arrange all these matters.

Yours sincerely . . .

One of the boys in my class was the son of the farmer just across the road from the School. I visited the farm and obtained per-

mission to use the premises for the stable scenes and outdoor scenes. I took a group of boys up there one evening and we cleaned out the chosen place, white-washed the walls and made all ready. A feeding-trough was found to serve as crib.

Another boy had a baby brother a month old. His mother readily agreed to lend her baby, and the cast was complete.

I visited all the parents who had offered to take an active part, and arranged transport and supervision of costuming and make-up. Each helping family was given a time-table to cover the period of filming. I then made a detailed timetable for myself, showing the date and time of every operation, and the names of every child and adult expected to attend each one. The shooting script was virtually complete now, and every one of the 40-odd scenes had its place in the timetable, as well as numerous other operations needed for the production.

In filming it is not always practicable to shoot scenes in the order in which they are finally going to be seen. In planning the time-table, considerations are mainly (1) the characters involved, and (2) the location. For example, all the scenes in Mary's house were shot on two consecutive occasions, so that the set could then be dismantled and a fresh set erected. Those scenes do not appear consecutively in the film. Again, the scenes involving the baby were all shot on one evening, though they are scattered through the film.

We received a phone call from the local paper. The editor had heard, through some of the parents I had been consulting, of our efforts, and a reporter visited the school. We were extremely fortunate in being given such a warm write-up as we had, in which the details and the general purpose of the whole project were so accurately and sympathetically reported. The next day a well-known National daily was on the phone too; but I did not have the confidence in them which I had in the local press, so I declined their request for permission to send a reporter.

Every child in the class was now given an individual time-table, showing when and where he would be needed. Each child made two copies: one to take home and leave for parents to refer to, and the other to bring back to me signed by a parent, so that I knew the parent had seen it. The child kept that one at school for his own reference.

On Thursday Oct. 16th we filmed 'titles' for the beginning of the film. Two or three boys had been cutting out letters from brightly coloured wallpaper to arrange on a blue-painted board. The following Saturday a small party set out on location to film The Betrothal. We used a portable tape recorder, and it was in fact the only outdoor scene to have dialogue. The filming had begun.

Some time before, my wife had been to the school to give ideas for costumes, and the children borrowed jewellery and gaudy pieces of material from their mothers or took them from the stockpile already accumulated. When the filming started, the costumes were not complete by a long way. Tunics and outer garments had to be made from materials supplied — old sheets, blankets, curtains etc. The secrets of dyeing were taught to some of our girls by children from an older class. Parents and I made copies of a Moroccan garment called a djellabah, with a hood and short sleeves, borrowed from a friend. A hoodless version served as a tunic, long or short as needed. Seven tunics and two djellabahs were made; we also made togas for Herod and his messenger. Togas had designs potato-printed round the edges. The djellabahs and one tunic were dyed. The dyeing and printing were done in the classroom, and beautiful effects were obtained very easily. Sandal-boots were made out of cardboard for the Roman soldiers — I made one pair and one of the boys made another, copying my design but making his to fit a smaller foot. These boots are easily made with Copydex and cardboard from boxes, using the actual foot of the wearer as a last.

A friend teaching in a neighbouring school had armour and helmets made for us, also from cardboard. These were spray-painted silver; shields were made in our classroom,

painted bright colours and decorated with designs in gold or silver foil.

A genuine Arab head-dress was lent by a parent. For the women, simple costumes were made from older sisters' or mothers' nighties, net curtain or gauze for a veil over a plain white or coloured head-dress. Sandals were used for footwear for both men and women.

In the first few filming sessions, we spent two-thirds of the time in preparation and one third in shooting. Hardly any of us, except the recording engineer, really knew what we were doing — the Director least of all. I found that a time-table for the evening's work was useful, so that the dressing and make-up girls knew when each of their characters was needed. As we gathered experience, we were able to get more done in a session.

The work of supervising dressing and make-up was entirely done by parents and older sisters. On the set I was busy directing lighting, supervising setting up the microphone (which usually had to be suspended by ropes from the stage steelwork) or taking rehearsals, which were always brief and left a certain amount of room for improvisation. Two boys were assistant cameramen, three or four at various times worked or held the lights and set them up or took them down; two were general handymen; two operated the recorder and pre-edited the tape. Two girls took turns at 'clapper', two saw to continuity, half a dozen helped with setting out, putting on and off and putting away costumes; several helped with make-up.

One morning early on in the term, the janitor came by and spoke a few words into the microphone as we were practising recording. He read from a rough script which was lying to hand. A girl said to me, 'Mr Kirke, why don't we ask Mr White to tell the story?' I was very glad of this idea, as the janitor did every possible thing to help us in our film-making, whatever hour of the day it happened to be, and it seemed appropriate that he should take some more obvious part in the film.

The wife of the farmer whose premises we were using also arranged for the loan of a donkey. He proved a willing beast, good-looking as donkeys go. Poor Joseph was very afraid of having his feet stepped on as he led the donkey, because he was wearing only sandals!

We were lucky with the weather, and got some lovely shots in the golden sunlight of the late afternoons. The evenings, too, were fine, so that filming in and outside the stable was able to go smoothly even though there were over twenty children at times, and of course, when they weren't busy with the film they wanted to be running about all over the farm in the dark.

Just on the day we were filming the journeying of the three wise men, some small horses were unexpectedly around the farm, and we lost no time asking for the use of them. It was the wise men's first time on horseback; they managed excellently, and I believe the horses very much increased the final effectiveness of the film.

The filming of the street market in Jerusalem was done in school in front of a painted backdrop. I announced that anyone who wanted to could dress up in whatever they could find and come on stage as extras, and they all made a colourful, busy scene. I find that if unrehearsed action can safely be brought in, it livens up the tone of the scene.

Towards the end of the filming programme, processed film began to arrive back from the laboratory, and I was able to show some of it to the children to give them some encouragement. After three weeks of evening and weekend work, some of the boys and girls were beginning to find their jobs not quite so exciting, especially if they hadn't much to do, or it was spasmodic work like scene-shifting. Seeing the results of their efforts made it easier for them to keep it up. I found also that the mere presence of parents on the set was useful to the children and made them feel more comfortable and more at home. Some children of course were at home straight away in the film world; but some never really understood what they were doing, even in a purely material way. Long after the filming had fin-

ished, one child said to me:

'I've been learning my part at home. I think I nearly know it now.'

'It's all finished now, you needn't worry,' I reassured her. She breathed a sigh of relief: 'Oh, that's good!' she said.

After the filming had finished, the headmaster organized an opportunity for me to show the rest of the staff something of what we had been doing. I showed some of the unedited film, with clapper boards and everything still in it, and played some of the music and dialogue, also unedited and unexpurgated.

Then I wrote this letter to the parents:

> Dear Parents, 23 11 69
>
> We have now had eight of the ten reels of film we shot back from processing, and I am certain we shall have a film worth watching. The costumes look lovely and the acting is often superb.
>
> Editing has begun, and I think the filming is all finished. There is still a great deal of work to be done making and recording music, commentary and other parts of the sound track.
>
> I shall have to carry out the editing in my own home. Any boys who wish to help and have been invited to do so may come home with me after school, have their tea at my house, and get their parents to transport them back to their own homes later in the evening. Editing is technically very interesting but demands great care and accuracy of hand and mind, and a lot of mental arithmetic. It is also a creative art.
>
> After this week costumes and properties will be returned to those who need them back.
>
> I would like to thank you all very much for all the help you have given, in particular for coming regularly to the filming sessions and bringing the children in cars or on foot.
>
> Without all this help it would not have been possible for me to have started the project.
>
> Yours sincerely . . .

I then began to concentrate on editing the film itself. By this is meant the process of cutting up the lengths of film received back from the processing station, cutting out unwanted or faulty pieces, and re-joining the good pieces into one continuous length which will constitute the finished film. This was comparatively easy; but even so I had to be careful over such matters as cutting out parts where the actors had forgotten their words, for instance, and cutting up shots where one character says all of his lines in a dialogue in a single shot, to save film; the shot has then to be cut up to intersperse the shots of the other characters in the dialogue saying their lines.

When the film was complete there was about 320 feet of it. I began straight away on the sound track, which would use about 600 feet of tape. Here the technical problems really began.

To obtain realistic synchronisation of speech sound and lip movement, so that it looks convincingly as though the sound really is coming from the speaker's mouth, the error should not be greater than two frames, or about one-eighth of a second, and should if possible be less. In this time about $\frac{1}{2}$ in. of tape passes through the tape recorder, and that means that the tape must not be more than $\frac{1}{2}$ in. out of time at any point in the film. In 600 feet, $\frac{1}{2}$ in. is one part in 14,400 or 0.007%. No ordinary tape recorder or projector runs to this accuracy; or anywhere near it; and anyway the 600 feet of tape can stretch several inches with a few degrees rise in temperature.

All this meant in practice that the synchronisation device on the projector I used could only be a help towards the degree of synchronisation required; devices exist using perforated tape, or magnetic pulses on tape, to ensure perfect synchronisation; but I did not have such a device. I therefore had to invent a way of synchronising tape and film, using only the apparatus at my disposal.

When I began assembling the sound track, I very soon discovered that for most of the time (but not all of the time) my camera was running slow. It exposed, I found, about 29 frames during the time it should have taken 30 frames. This was a further complication, for the sync device on the projector was designed for 16 frames per second and was not adjustable. The sync device appeared capable of ensuring a sync accuracy of about 0.2%. I calculated that if I could adjust it about 30 times during the whole film, I could keep it in synchronisation.

I decided, after some experiments with marking the tape, that I should put a clearly visible mark on a master tape every 120 frames, that is about every 30 inches, all along the whole 600 foot length. The marks would each bear a number — the number of frames which should have gone past the projector since the first frame of the film, when that mark reaches the projector roller. I would use these marks for two purposes:

(1) to align each one with a mark on the projector tape roller as it passed over the roller;

(2) to see where to splice the sound track tape into the master tape.

I also had to increase the diameter of the projector tape roller so that it would draw slightly more than one second's run of tape through for every sixteen frames, so that exactly one second's run of tape would allow slightly less than sixteen frames through the projector, thus effectively slowing down the projector to the required speed — about 15½ frames/sec. I wrapped thin card round the roller, making fine adjustments with pieces of sellotape. A clear mark was made on the roller, parallel with the axis. The roller rotates once for every 12 frames so that ten revolutions (120 frames) should occur between one tape mark and the next.

I went through the film carefully on the editing viewer, and counted the frames for each shot. A list of these was made, and it was then possible to splice the dialogue tapes into the master tape at the right point; e.g. if shot number 131 — Herod speaking to the centurion — starts at frame number 20,783, the nearest mark to that number is found on the tape. This will be the mark corresponding to frame 20,760. From this mark, the point on the tape for frame 20,783 can easily be found by laying the tape on a scale.

I so adjusted the projector tape roller diameter that the error was always in the direction of pulling too much tape through. I could thus easily slip a frame or two whenever necessary during projection, by lifting the pressure roller for a fraction of a second. In practise I was able to keep the synchronisation within the acceptable tolerance.

Because of the variability of camera speed, every lip-synchronised shot had to be carefully checked right through by lip-reading and counting the frames, to see if synchronisation was good enough. If the camera had been running faster than usual, extra pieces of tape had to be spliced in at convenient points where there were gaps in the dialogue. Fortunately, I could rely on the tape recorder running at a constant speed, though even that had an error of 3% fast.

During projection I found that in practice I was able to look at the tape running through the sync device every minute or so, using a weak torch. The amount of adjustment depended mainly on the temperature of the tape, but in any case it was easily done and fairly reliable when you got used to it.

Other technical difficulties were caused by the lack of a standard intensity of recording. This could be got over by training the recording engineers (and myself) to be more careful about signal level when recording; even so, experience is necessary with different types of sound, to be able to decide how loud it should be recorded.

Next time we make a film I shall be more careful over excluding camera noise. In the close-ups it is very noticeable.

So much for the technicalities. We had hard work with the music. I had arranged 'Away in a Manger' for two voice parts, recorders and

piano bass. I found that although harmony singing is, in a way, within the capabilities of nine-year-old children, few of them were yet able to sing their own part and listen properly to another sung part at the same time. It tends to become a competition instead of a co-operation — especially as at this age children are passionately fond of competition. There is therefore a lack of integration of the harmonies. However, we managed an acceptable rendering of most of what I felt was needed.

Two boys composed a percussion moment for the appearance of the angel to the shepherds; some more boys composed a piece with drum and four cymbals, and some girls composed a recorder piece with words and percussion accompaniment for the same part of the film, which in the end I was unable to use because it was too long; but at my suggestion the girls took the theme and decorated it impromptu, and that made a suitable introduction and coda to the film.

For the more essentially tuneful pieces I selected good singers, as I had not the time needed to train those who could not sing accurately. I hope to do this over the next twelve months, but it is slow, individual work. There are some places in the music where singing out of tune is not necessarily out of place, and the untuneful ones were able to enjoy themselves in 'Willie, Take your Little Drum', or with percussion instruments, or in Puer Nobis.

Although the boys helped me with the editing, I found this a hindrance. I did not find them capable of the concentration, accuracy or mathematics required for this size of task. With training, they could have learned to join the film, and to count frames; but because of the accuracy needed, I should have needed to re-count every shot and check every calculation and every film joint. There are over 150 joints in the film, and the risk of breakage is high if the joints are not perfectly made. If one addition sum is wrong, synchronisation from that point on in the film is impossible. I did not have the time for all this checking and the instruction necessary as well, for we had to get the film finished in time for showing before Christmas. Whether they could eventually have learnt to mark, measure and splice the dialogue tape in at the right places I do not know, for there are many opportunities for mistakes.

When the dialogue and music had all been assembled on the tape, the janitor spent an evening recording the commentary. First I showed him the film, then we made the commentary up together as we went along. We kept it to a minimum. Next day I recorded this on to the master tape without splicing, and in some cases on top of existing sound-track without erasing. The film was complete.

I practised showing it to my wife at home. I had to get used to keeping the required intermittent watch on the tape throughout the film, and adjusting it from time to time. There were a few errors to be sorted. Just over a week before the end of term, we were ready to show the film.

During one day nine classes and their teachers saw the film. It was a great success. That evening I showed it to a hundred parents, and the following Monday to the rest of the classes in the school. Another evening showing to parents, and one at the house of our farmer friend, then other private or semi-private showings followed; and we still have the film to show next year, too.

I found that children are the most appreciative kind of audience for this film. The youngest ones were able to sing with the music on the sound-track, and the older ones compared it favourably with what they saw on television.

After my class had seen the film for the third, or possibly fourth, time, the leading actress came up to me and said:

'Mr Kirke, I'm jolly glad you made that film!'

'I'm glad **you** made it', I replied; for I should have had to go a long way to find a nine-year-old girl with the qualities required which she had, or who was so easy to direct and so pleasant and willing to work with. I look forward to making more films with her and the rest of the children in the class.

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The Banffshire Transition Experiment

A. B. Watson, M.A.
Deputy Head of Transition Department,
Banff Academy

On 12th November 1969, over 1,000 pupils from all over Lower Banffshire settled into the New Banff Academy. On that same day, nearly 2 miles away, 273 excited 11 and 12 year olds streamed into the secondary building of the former Macduff High School. These children were the first to take part in a unique educational experiment which is attempting to obviate some of the problems incurred during the transition from primary to secondary education.

Though it is true that many children are stimulated by the sheer excitement of change, and the intellectual challenge of the secondary school, there are many more unfortunate primary pupils to whom the new disciplines, the new teachers, the new classmates, and the much less familiar situations come as a severe shock. For the less mature, less confident, and more backward child, the move from primary to secondary school can indeed be a traumatic experience.

Pupils coming from friendly and protective rural schools may well find the large bustling impersonal comprehensive a terrifying place. Undoubtedly most pupils eventually settle down happily in their new school, but the time taken to re-adjust can vary alarmingly. The Banff Academy Transition Department has been set up to help make the progress of pupils from one educational stage to the other as smooth, pleasant and as profitable as possible.

The 273 children who descended on Macduff on the 12th November came from nine primary schools around the areas of Lower Banffshire, and the intake varied from a one-teacher school sending five pupils, to a two-stream primary sending 80 children. One of the first tasks was to create eight mixed-ability classes out of the heterogeneous concourse of children. This 'pot pourri' of pupils was further diversified by splitting up the groups from the various areas into different classes. The 'fusion' of pupils from different areas was deliberate and an extremely vital factor in the overall plan, for it is important that the pupils learn to integrate as soon as possible.

Once allocated to a class, the pupils would remain in it, not only during the Transition year, but also during the first year of their secondary course. Pupils were also assigned to a house to which they would belong throughout their career at Banff Academy, but more will be said about this later.

Macduff High School, built in 1964, may not, at first, have seemed the ideal choice for the Transition experiment. After all, it had been designed as a secondary school and the accommodation requirements of primary pupils are rather different from those of the secondary. In practice the eight formal class-rooms have indeed proved a little on the cramped side for active primary pupils, but any restriction here has been amply compensated for by the other facilities available in this fine school. There is a gym, a well stocked library and a magnificent assembly hall, complete with a fully equipped stage. There are also art, commerce, homecraft, music, science and technical rooms which provide excellent scope for experiment and project work — indeed every room in the school is used purposefully at some time or other during the day.

In addition to ameliorating the progress of pupils from primary to secondary, the Transition year is attempting to broaden and enrich the normal primary seven education by the use of specialist teachers of Music, Art, Drama, Technical, Homecraft, French and Science. These teachers visit the department regularly and work in close liaison with the permanent staff, advising and assisting in the various projects and centres of interest. Since most of these teachers will continue to teach the transition pupils when they move to Banff Academy, it is obvious that the children will not be transferring to a completely unfamiliar environment. The fact that all transition pupils will also have at least one 'guided tour' of the new Banff Academy should help to dispel the

last vestiges of the 'unknown' before the final transfer.

Apart from the initial problems of adapting the secondary accommodation for primary use, and of integrating the 273 children from so many different areas and types of schools, there were also the not inconsiderable difficulties faced by the permanent staff of eight primary seven teachers, who were leaving familiar surroundings, colleagues and pupils to teach in an entirely new situation. The character quality and attitude of these teachers were vital factors in the success of the Transition experiment. It was extremely important that not only should they 'get on together', but that they should be willing to co-operate and work as a team.

These thoughts were very much on the mind of the Deputy Head in charge of the Transition Department when he was planning the first session's programme. It was decided that the whole department would carry out a project using the Motor Car as the Centre of Interest, and that it would be studied from the economic, historical and sociological aspects. This theme was chosen, because, apart from the fact that the motor car in some ways epitomises the age we live in, it was felt that it offered enough scope to get everyone interested. Each class could follow a particular line of study and then present results in one of the ancillary project rooms. For in stance one class could study rubber or plastic or tin, another could concentrate on the historical aspect of the car, others on the sociological aspect of roads and motorways. Classes could visit each other's exhibitions and the results discussed. In this way teachers and pupils in different groups could continually meet and exchange material, information and ideas.

The project was a sucess in that it helped the staff to get to know each other better, and to work as a team, and it enabled the children to get used to the idea that they were not going to be confined to the classroom, but could spill out into the various project rooms throughout the school whenever it was necessary. The Specialist teachers, of course, worked closely with the class teachers throughout the project, and their specialist advice and knowledge helped to produce some spectacular and thought-provoking displays.

A 'Safety on the Road' week concluded the first major project of the Transition Department. During this week the school was visited by the police, bus drivers, ambulance men, garage mechanics and safety experts. Films were shown and discussion groups were formed. Many of the visitors commented on the interest and enthusiasm of the children. Others were intrigued by the possibilities of having nearly 300 children all at the same impressionable age in the same school. It was a fitting end to an extremely interesting and profitable project.

It is obvious, of course, that much of the success of any project or centre of interest depends on the amount of space available. The generous accommodation enjoyed by the Transition Department is something that few other primary schools in Scotland could emulate. Apart from project work, other benefits gained from this have been that the children are learning to work on their own, or in little groups, without supervision. All over the school, in the library, in one of the main project rooms, or in a smaller study room, one is likely to come upon a small group of earnest scholars, studiously getting on with their own individual research, and probably oblivious of your presence! Thus in Transition, the emphasis is on 'pupil motivated' learning as well as the traditional 'teacher motivated' learning. It has been said that one of the major contributions of student failure in universities has been the inability of the Scottish student to study on his own — perhaps the Transition experiment is planting a seed which might go at least a little way towards rectifying a traditional Scottish failing.

Even after a short time, it is clear that the role of the Specialist teachers in the Transition experiment is to be a valuable one. Nevertheless the specific duties of these teachers have not been laid down — it was felt that their true role would evolve in their own way

as the experiment proceeded. In effect their special talents have not only contributed to the project work, they have also been of great assistance to teachers in their day to day class work.

Apart from helping in school and class projects the Homecraft and Technical teachers have been helping the young pupils to appreciate the necessity of safety and hygiene in workshop and kitchen. The boys have been learning how to handle all kinds of tools, and the girls have been introduced to the mysteries of the gas and electric cookers and sewing machines. Towards the end of the Transition year the roles will be reversed, and the boys will have 6 – 8 weeks of homecraft, while the girls, of course, will join the technical class. In an age when so many wives have to do repairs, and so on, themselves, and when many husbands have to cook their own meals, who can deny that this is a good thing for young pupils. The interesting thing about this is that both boys and girls are looking forward immensely to the change-over.

Science, although claimed by some to be one of the new subjects in the curriculum, has, of course, always been taught in the Primary School. The Transition Department is, however, unique in the primary field in that it possesses two magnificent and fully equipped science laboratories. Teachers from the Banff Academy Science department come over regularly to help and advise the staff in the use of the science equipment and the preparation of suitable experiments. The two science laboratories are also used for project work, and for viewing television programmes.

Another so-called 'new' subject in the primary curriculum is French. The teaching of a modern language (usually French) was first introduced in Scottish Primary Schools in 1962. Needless to say, parents welcomed the idea — the mental image of one's offspring prattling away happily and effortlessly in a foreign language seemed very pleasant indeed. However, a group of H.M. Inspectors of Schools, who carried out a survey between January and September 1968, had distinct reservations about the efficacy of the teaching of French in primary schools, and in a pamphlet published in 1969 (SBN 11 490279 8) they made certain recommendations 'which must be fulfilled if modern language teaching in the primary school is to be successful.' Since the setting up of a French department in the Transition experiment coincided with the emergence of these recommendations, considerable effort was made to observe as many of them as was possible. Pupils get approximately 70 – 75 minutes tuition over three days, from a fully qualified teacher who divides her time between the Transition Department and Banff Academy. In this way a close and effective liaison is effected between the two schools. A room has been set aside so that the audio-visual aids (tape recorder, film-strip projector and record player) are readily available, and that the minimum amount of time is lost in the movement of classes and the setting up of the equipment.

At the moment the main course used is 'Bonjour Line' which was prepared by the CREDIF organisation in France. Primarily the course is carried on by means of the film-strip and tape recorder, but there is ample opportunity for the teacher to develop the material anyway she likes or that will best benefit the children. Later it is hoped to try out another course — 'En Avant' — as well. If teaching French at the primary stage is to be successful at all, then it is likely that the methods used in the Transition Department have as high a chance of success as any.

If the close contact between the French Department of Banff Academy and the Transition Department, and the careful supervision of material being taught, is intrinsic to the effective teaching of French, then mutatis mutandus, it is also essential for other subjects in the curriculum such as Mathematics, English and Science. It is pleasant to record that the heads of these departments in Banff Academy have been generous with their advice and help and have been most punctilious in their visits to discuss any problems with the Transition staff. This liaison is not only helping teachers to get to know each other better, but is also encouraging a mutual respect for the contributions each are making in the educational set-up.

This close association is not only confined to subject teachers. Banff Academy House-masters and Housemistresses pay visits to the Banff Transition Department, familiarising themselves with the children who will be in their care for the next few years, and, what is equally important, the transition pupils are getting to know the people whom they are likely to consult first if they are in trouble, or need help of any kind when they are at the secondary stage.

In a school of nearly 300 children, all in the same age group, it is inevitable that some children are unable to make the same progress as their fellows, or to tackle the level of work consistent with their stage of development. Such pupils are classified as backward, but it would be cruel and unforgivable to use the term in front of the children themselves. The Transition Department is very much aware of the needs of these young people and at the moment each teacher is doing remedial work within her own classroom. Next session, however, there will be a full time remedial or adjustment teacher who will have the time not only to help the pupils according to their ability and aptitude, but to tackle any emotional, physical and environmental elements which may be contributory factors towards the backwardness. It is not intended that the child in need of remedial treatment should be removed permanently from the 'normal' class community, but that they should leave their own class for short periods to undertake tutorial work in small groups. The knowledge and information gained by the adjustment teacher will be passed on to Banff Academy at the end of each session and should prove invaluable for any follow up treatment necessary at the secondary stage.

The Transition experiment has been in operation for only five months, but it is already apparent that the children have settled down remarkably quickly. During the Easter holiday, 80 pupils spent five days touring London — a trip that was extremely successful and it is hoped to make it an annual event. There is every indication that the children from the different areas all round Lower Banffshire are integrating very well indeed. Recently, a little girl, who was one of five pupils who had come to the Transition Department from a one-teacher school, was asked if she were looking forward to going to the new Banff Academy in August. She is a rather introvertish child, and merely nodded her head — and it looked as if nothing else was forthcoming. Then with a shy smile she blurted out, 'I was rather scared at first, but I'm not now, for we're all going over together aren't we?' This kind of attitude augers well for the future.

Next session the major project is to be a study of the Mass Media — Radio, Television, the Press, Advertising and so on. The staff have already begun planning the various themes they will follow and how they can co-operate with one another. Possible visits to a newspaper office, to a television studio and to a radio station are already being mooted. The way seems open to try out a measure of Team eaching. Whether this approach will be successful or not, remains to be seen, but the atmosphere prevailing in the Department is certainly conducive to this type of educational experiment, and every encouragement will be given to the staff if they try this new approach.

The Banffshire Transition Year is an experiment, and it is far too early to talk about success or failure — indeed it would be invidious to even attempt to do so. Nevertheless it is imperative that the experiment be fairly assessed, and for that reason an Evaluation Panel has been formed. This group consists of The Director of Education for Banffshire, the Rector of Banff Academy, the Deputy Head of the Transition Department, the Banffshire County Educational Psychologist, two Psychologists from the Aberdeen College of Education, a Consultant Psychologist from the North East Regional Hospital Board, and one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools. This group will examine the development of the experiment over the next five years, and in the end will determine whether the various aims of the Transition year have been achieved successfully or not. Nevertheless it is perhaps not too early at least to say that at a time when the links between primary and secondary education need to be closer than

ever before, the Banff Academy Transition Department is striving earnestly and sincerely to close the gap between the two educational stages.

Nursery Education in Manchester

Ruth Yates
District Inspector of Schools

Since 1870, children between the ages of 3 and 5 years have been admitted to Infant Schools in Manchester, and in 1918 there were approximately 8,000 children of this age in the Babies Classes of Elementary Schools in the City. Conditions in these classes were far from ideal. Numbers on roll were large and few special concessions were made to the particular needs of these very young children. In 1908 the Board of Education, aware of the need for special provisions for children from poor home environments in large industrial centres, advocated the establishment of nursery schools but it was not until the Education Act of 1918 that Local Education Authorities were empowered to make provision for nursery education. At the same time a government grant to meet this need was made available.

This grant made possible a steady growth of nursery provision. It was in Manchester, in 1918, that the first true nursery class in the Country was opened and children from 3 to 5 years were admitted. Two years later, Manchester opened its first nursery school with provision for children between the ages of 2 and 5 years. In order to provide for the greatest possible number of children, the available financial resources were used mainly to provide nursery classes as distinct from nursery schools, the former being cheaper to establish than the latter. Almost all the nurseries were in areas of industrial development and were planned to relieve children and parents of some of the hardships of living in substandard conditions.

With the outbreak of war in 1939 and with the need to encourage mothers of young children to take up war work new nurseries were opened in schools with empty classrooms, provided that a minimum standard of sanitary facilities could be achieved. The schools and classes opened over an extended period each day, and during the war, many nursery classes provided breakfasts, dinners and teas for the children, and closed only at week-ends and public holidays. The staff worked on a shift system.

This period of rapid expansion was succeeded by one of recession. Following termination of hostilities, the urgency to provide nursery places appeared to diminish. This fact, coupled with the pressure on Local Education Authorities to provide accommodation for children of statutory school age whose numbers increase as a result of the accelerated birth rate, led to the closure of some nurseries. Economic factors and the shortage of teachers for older children prompted the Ministry of Education to issue in 1960 Circular 8/60 which prohibited expansion of nursery education, so that all available resources could be concentrated on catering for the needs of those older age groups for whom Local Authorities have statutory obligations. This Circular did not however, prohibit the substitution of nurseries which became superfluous in areas of housing re-development by others in suburban districts. It is probably this factor which made it possible for Local Authorities to meet the demands of the changing concept of nursery education. No longer is this provision made available only for children living in socially or culturally deprived areas. It is widely recognised that children everywhere may benefit from a period of education in a nursery school or class before they reach statutory school age. Parents from a complete social and intellectual range are demanding nursery places for their children. In order to meet this demand, some nurseries now admit children for morning or afternoon sessions only, thereby making many more places available. It may well be that this pressure for places has indirectly brought about recognition of the value in its own right of part-time nursery education for a proportion of children.

Whilst Circular 8/60 still limits expansion of nursery provision, Manchester, along with other Authorities, has received special concessions under a new Urban Building Programme of 1969, which allows for the provision of nurseries in areas of special social need. Plans have already been prepared to open an additional eighteen nursery classes and one nursery school making a total for the City of nearly a hundred and fifty nursery classes and six nursery schools.

Day Nurseries

Local Education Authorities do not carry sole responsibility for nursery provision. Local Public Health Authorities cater for children from the age of a few months to five years in Day Nurseries. The Day Nurseries provide almost exclusively for the children of mothers who need to go out to work and they are open for extended hours to meet the particular needs of parents.

Pre-School Play Groups

In spite of the extensive provision of nursery places by both the Local Education Authorities and the Public Health Departments, there is still a demand for more places in some areas, and the Pre-School Play Groups Movement is endeavouring to meet this need. These groups which have to be registered as satisfactory by the Public Health Department, meet in private houses or halls, and are run by persons with varied qualifications who are assisted, in some cases on a voluntary basis by the parents of the very children who attend. A small fee is payable for each child in attendance. It is usual for Local Authorities to support these Groups by encouraging contact between staffs of their own nurseries and those of the Play Groups, and by arranging In-Service Training Courses for Play Group personnel.

Team Teaching in Infant Schools

Ruth Yates
District Inspector of Schools

The commonly accepted and traditional image of a teacher is that of a person isolated and wholly responsible within her own classroom for the academic as well as the cultural and aesthetic education of a limited number of children. In their turn children tend to regard their own classroom as the place in which they spend the major part of each day working under the guidance of their own class teacher. Recent research into how children grow and learn and how teachers teach has led to some re-thinking on this matter and there is now a limited but expanding interest in a type of organisation within infant schools which is known as 'Team Teaching'. This name is applied to forms of organisation which encourage teachers not to work nor to accept responsibility merely for their own particular group or class of children but to feel concerned for other children and have an awareness of the strengths and weaknesses of their colleagues.

A team usually comprises two or three teachers working together for the benefit of a relatively appropriate number of children. One teacher, normally the most experienced of the team, acts as leader to co-ordinate the work of the other teachers working with her. Among themselves they discuss the particular contributions which each can make for the benefit of all the children and they apportion responsibility for various aspects of the children's learning as seems appropriate. Whilst each teacher will accept responsibility for keeping records and for the general care of a specific group of children with whom she establishes close bonds, all members of the team are available for the benefit of all the children. In new schools large open planned work areas have replaced formal classrooms with their four walls. In older types of buildings direct access between classrooms has been provided by withdrawing screens or knocking down walls so that teachers can work in the company of their colleagues.

The advantages of this arrangement are greatest where teachers agree in general principles and where interests are different though approaches are aligned. Some teachers are musical; others have no musical ability. Some are interested in art or science, or have a special love of literature. When schools are organised traditionally the inequalities of opportunity offered to children even within the same school have long been a source of concern. There are children who are fortunate. They meet only experienced, talented teachers whose interests are far ranging. At the other extreme, some children are less lucky in that they meet a succession of inexperienced or less able teachers. Team teaching provides a means not merely of sharing the experience and capabilities of the staff among a larger number of children than traditional teaching affords; it supports the weaker or less experienced teacher who, from contact with stronger and capable colleagues, has opportunities to see experts practise their craft of teaching. From the teacher's point of view it affords her time to pursue her own interests to greater depths and this will be reflected in the enthusiasm on the part of the children. Furthermore, because the teacher is teaching in the company of her colleagues, the quality of the teaching will tend to rise. There are subjects, e.g. television programmes, story telling or music, which can sometimes be taken with larger numbers of children than those of normal class size, whilst remedial work or visits outside the immediate environment of the school require organisation in small groups. Flexibility in the size of groups can be provided through team teaching as one teacher takes a large group whilst the colleague can concentrate on those children requiring more individual attention.

Team teaching has proved particularly valuable in helping probationer teachers and married women returners to gain confidence and experience in modern concepts of education. Where part-time teachers are employed continuity of approach is maintained through the full-time members of the team. These full-time members have opportunities for leadership and responsibility and it is from their ranks that one might expect to select candidates for further promotion.

Whilst team teaching has many advantages there are some experienced teachers who can provide a first class professional approach to teaching but who will find it difficult to adapt themselves to the team teaching situation. It is possible for team teaching and class teaching to progress side by side within the same school.

Team Teaching in the Junior School

J. Rothwell
District Inspector of Schools

Team teaching in the schools catering for children at the primary stage is not new. There have, however, been radical changes in its concept, its interpretation, and its benefit to the children.

The Church Schools of the second half of the nineteenth century were often organised with a qualified headteacher, who supervised, in one or two school-rooms, a team of assistants and pupil teachers. The rudiments of learning were imparted within the limits set by the Code. The system grew out of expedience, and met with the needs of the times.

The first half of the 20th century saw the growth of the teacher and the class concept, with an increased concern for meeting the needs of individual children. The production of educated people with rounded personalities, within new limits of age, ability and aptitude became the aim of schools. The standards expected were based on an arbitrary balance between tradition and the future needs of society. In practice, however, instead of being inhibited by a code, schools set their own limits. Despite the underlying thoughts on age, ability and aptitude, this approach led to the judgment of a child being based largely on his academic achievements in narrow subject fields.

It is becoming increasingly clear that the future needs of society cannot be met by an

academic elite with the majority making a long tail, and by fitting children into preconceived moulds. Changing attitudes towards authority and higher standards of living have resulted in schools taking a hard look at themselves, and giving further consideration of the needs of society in the years ahead.

There is evidence of a growing need for sophisticated systems of communication. Success depends on an ability to think clearly, understand concepts and communicate readily. Instant information and instant opinion are one aspect of the way this need is being partially met. Industry demands a language of mathematics that is outside the cultural experience of the homes from which many children come. Standards in art and design can no longer be imposed by a select few. Society demands a functional quality that to the person of traditional outlook is often offensive.

This reasoning leads to the second aspect of communication, which is the expression of what is felt inwardly as well as what is seen. This is the sixth sense of the late 20th century.

The concept that children learn by discovery and experience is no longer enough. The Junior School is becoming a place where experiences are refined and elevated. Limits are no longer being set according to arbitrary defined skills and aptitudes, and the children are led to paths with no closed gates.

This leads to a situation where all the skills, interests and enthusiasm of a school staff are brought together. In a good team teaching pattern, children are exposed to more than one adult during their learning day. Individual needs and individual gifts are met and fostered in fluid groups. Every child finds frequent opportunity for success as a number of teachers open doors to new experiences.

Children learn attitudes, not only from the relationship between teacher and taught but also from what they see of the relationships between the adults to whom they are exposed. In this way school becomes an extension of the basis of civilisation, the caring, loving family where the various members are each accepted for their own qualities.

The school based on team teaching is an efficient machine in the sense that each child receives more attention and there is less need to set norms of teaching that would be relevant to some children in the traditional class but, of necessity, left out others. It leads to the achievement of the first duty of any school, which is to provide happiness in a learning, refining, elevating situation.

The tentative steps towards team teaching at the Junior stage have been accelerated by the revolutionary changes in school design on open plan lines. Here team teaching can develop with an area expressing the community of the school surrounded by other areas where members of the team may work with groups of variable size.

A significant development in team teaching can be seen where the school caters for children at the infant and junior stages in one unit. This gives an opportunity for teachers to spread their influence beyond one or two age groups. The musical teacher can participate in and see clearly the progression from nursery rhyme to orchestra. The teacher with special ability in mathematics can influence the whole of the primary school life of a child. The work grows naturally in a family atmosphere, but, equally important, the professional skills of teachers cover a much wider field than that experienced with a traditional class of 40.

Special Educational Provision for Immigrant Children

J. Darlington
District Inspector of Schools

The presence of immigrant groups in Manchester is not a new feature and for many decades the City has shown an enlightened concern for the various ethnic groups that have come to settle here.

Some ten years ago, however, a new problem began to confront the schools and in conse-

quence the Education Committee recognised the need to take special cognisance of the situation. Enquiries into the increasing number of immigrants particularly in the primary schools revealed that although there was a substantial increase of immigrant children, mostly West Indians with a much smaller proportion from the Asian countries, these children were present in small numbers in any one school.

The fundamental problem posed by the recent immigrant was one of communication. Adjustment to the new milieu was complicated, not only for the Indian and Pakistani child who came with little or no English at all, but also for the West Indian, whose non-standard English demanded immediate remedial attention.

Accordingly, it was with the intention of ensuring the most efficient and rapid integration of the immigrant child into our educational system that the present policy was adopted. The immigrant children are attached to their normal classes with whom they work as far as possible. Small groups are withdrawn according to their ability for daily periods of instruction in language and number. This approach has a number of advantages; the child frequents the school to which his English neighbours go; he is not singled out and made to feel different and is able to mix with the English children for the maximum amount of time and given the maximum opportunity for making friends with the English native community; finally, the teacher responsible for the special tuition is in constant touch with the class teacher and the head teacher.

It has been recognised throughout that other special measures were called for if the schools were to cope with the new situation. Additional staff, over and above the Authority's basic quota of teachers, have been appointed annually in addition to the teachers responsible for the withdrawal groups, to improve the staff-pupil ratio generally and help reduce the size of classes in the schools. Additional capitation allowances have been allocated to the schools concerned to provide extra stationery, books, equipment and other educational apparatus including such technical aids as tape recorders and language masters with appropriate junction boxes and headsets.

As part of its regular in-service training the Authority has for some years now arranged courses designed to keep teachers informed of the cultural, religious and social backgrounds of the children and to acquaint the teachers with methods which have been used successfully in teaching English as a second language. Study groups in which teachers from neighbouring authorities have participated, have done much to help teachers pool their resources and exchange ideas. The appointment of a former Headmistress as coordinator in 1966 has enabled the Authority to sustain and improve the work of those engaged in this particular field of activity. For the past three years a special induction course has been held at the Curriculum Development Centre for newly appointed teachers to acquaint them with the problems involved in teaching in a multi-racial society and to introduce them to the materials and facilities available to them. They have spent the last three weeks of the summer term in the schools to which they were appointed and this has enabled them to make a useful contact with the children and staff before taking up their appointment in September.

During the past three years a number of schools have been closely associated with the Schools Council Project concerned with the production, trial and publication of materials to cover the linguistic needs of the children primarily from the Asian countries. The Curriculum Development Centre, with its invaluable permanent display of materials and equipment, has provided the venue for teachers participating in the project and for others to be kept informed of the developments. More recently several teachers have been acting in an advisory capacity in connection with a similar project centred on Birmingham University in respect of immigrant children of West Indian origin and the Authority has been invited to become a pilot area in this particular project.

The most recent development in connection with the educational provision for immigrant children has been the planning of a literacy project to take place during the summer vacation 1970. It is proposed to accommodate two groups of approximately twenty immigrant children of primary school age into two centres associated with two existing Play Centres. Under the guidance of a qualified teacher, acting as superintendent, who will be assisted by a number of student volunteers, it is hoped to provide a whole range of educational opportunities and to help bridge the gap in the summer months when the children might otherwise have little or no opportunity to use the English language and to mix with the host community.

The number of immigrant pupils in the primary and secondary schools in the City has shown a gradual rise over the past few years from 2.9% in 1966 to 5.6% in 1970 and the position demands constant surveillance and a flexible policy. It is essential to maintain and strengthen the services provided for the schools which are making a valuable contribution towards the integration of a multi-racial society.

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Building on What We Know

Ruth G. Strickland

Dr Ruth G. Strickland, Professor Emeritus, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, gave the following speech at a convention of the International Reading Association at Boston, Massachusetts. It appeared in the Featured Addresses section of an IRA pamphlet entitled: 'Reading and Realism.' International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, U.S.A. and the author have given THE NEW ERA permission to reprint this resarch-based and informative speech.

Dr Ruth G. Strickland is known in the United States as an authority on language and reading of elementary school children. Her research is reported in the following two bulletins: 'The Language of Elementary School Children: Its Relationship to the Language of Reading Textbooks and the Quality of Reading of Selected Children,'[1] and 'The Contribution of Structural Linguistics to the Teaching of Reading, Writing and Grammar in the Elementary School.'[2]

1 Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. 38, No. 4, July 1962. By Ruth Strickland.

2 Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. 40, No. 1, January 1964. By Ruth Strickland.

Every child brings a language to school. For some time the linguists have been reminding us that the child of five or six is almost a linguistic adult. Unless he is seriously handicapped physically, mentally, or environmentally, he controls, with slight exception, if any, the sound or phonemic structure of his language; he handles, apparently effortlessly, its grammatical core; and he knows and uses its basic vocabulary. Observations at Indiana University, those of Loban, Hunt, and others, support this claim and suggest that the limited structures one found children using in the experimental studies and those any one encounters through casual observation of the free talk of children are only a small part of the child's latent repertoire. 'The achievement of this repertoire is a remarkable example of

self-education which the schools do well to build on. What the child has learned already he has learned under the pressures of the necessities and pleasures of daily living. If school is to continue the processes already started it must stir the same kind of pressure and kindle the same excitement'.[3]

The Child's Pre-school Achievement

How has the child achieved this mastery of his language in the years between two and five or six? More information has been amassed in the past ten years on what the child does as he learns his language than the entire accumulation of previous years. Teachers of reading need to be aware of what the child has achieved and how he has achieved it because the task is to expand his command or oracy and help him achieve a like measure of literacy.

A study of the available research on children's language led Eric Lenneberg of Havard University and Children's Medical Center to state the following:

> The onset of speech is an extremely regular phenomenon, appearing at a certain time in the child's physical development and following a fixed sequence of events, as if all children followed the same general 'strategy' from the time they begin to the period at which they have mastered the art of speaking. The first things that are learned are principles — not items: Principles of categorization and pattern perception. The first words refer to classes, not unique objects or events. The sounds of language and the configuration of words are at once perceived and reproduced according to principles; they are patterns in time, and they never function as randomly strung up items. From the beginning, very general principles of semantics and syntax are manifest. Even if the maturational scale as a whole is distorted through retarding disease, the order of developmental milestones, including onset of speech, remains invariable. Onset and accomplishment of language learning do not seem to be affected by cultural or linguistic variations.[7]

Interesting examples of Lenneberg's points are found in the contributions of Miller and Ervin at the University of California in Berkeley in the work of Gleason, Menyuk, and others at Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Harvard. A brief sketch of evidence we all recognize, some of it with little thought for its significance, follows.

Children come equipped to learn any language, of course; and during their first year, while they do an immense amount of listening, they are also babbling, perhaps using all the sounds of all the languages from Arabic to Zulu. But by the first birthday the baby who lives in an English-speaking environment is uttering English-sounding syllables with English intonation. Then, following a period in which he makes do with one-word utterances which may carry the impact and meaning of entire sentences, there is a period of 'telegraphic speech' when the child says, 'David's shoe,' 'Sweater off,' 'Daddy come,' 'Blue truck,' and the like. Researchers have found that at this stage it is impossible to induce the child to repeat an entire sentence. To say to a child at this stage, 'Put the book where it belongs,' or 'I will not do that again,' or 'Now you say it' elicits the response, 'Put belongs' or 'Do again.' Not until the child has made the pattern his own can he repeat it.

Between the child's first two-word utterance at about eighteen months and his third birthday, the child learns all the essentials of English grammar. By the age of thirty-six months many a child can produce all the major types of English sentences, even up to ten words. And by the time he enters school at five years of age his knowledge of English is so vast and complex that no one has yet been able to program even the most sophisticated computer to turn out the sentences that a five-year-old can produce with ease and assurance.[6]

The young child's intuitive awareness of principles of phonology and syntax is manifest at a number of points. He early learns that the plural form of a noun ends in /-s/ or its equivalent. He does not need to know that if a noun ends in a vowel or a voiced consonant like b, d, or g one adds a /-z/ sound. He says,

'boys', 'beds'. He adds an /-s/ sound to 'hats' and 'trucks' and a /-z/ sound to 'wishes' and 'matches'. Having sensed a principle, he now applies it overconsistently to produce such combinations as 'deers', 'feets' and 'gooses'. The same awareness of principle is evident as he forms the past tense of verbs. The verb 'played' ends in a /-d/ sound, 'walked' ends in a /-t/ sound, and 'waited' in a/-d/ sound. The child appears to recognize classes of words. He does not add an /-ed/ morpheme to a noun nor an /-s/ morpheme to form the past tense of a verb. He follows his pattern exactly, even with words that are irregular. He says, 'My daddy buyed me a new balloon because I breaked my other one.' Even as he becomes aware of irregularities in verbs or in comparatives and superlatives, he applies his intuitively sensed rules fairly consistently. He says, 'I brang my new book today,' following the pattern of 'ring' and 'sing' or 'My new book is more better than my old one,' applying both regular and irregular forms in the same sentence.

Incidentally, it is interesting to note that the child appears at this time to be doing just what the common folk of England did after the conquest of William of Normandy in 1066. That was a period when the government of England was carried on in the French language and only those whom Hugh Sykes Davies of Cambridge University calls 'the little people' used English, and in approximately three hundred years they regularized, simplified, and carried English forward at many points. In fact, Davies holds that, given another few years in their exclusive care, English might now form all its past tenses by adding /-ed/ to the present and all of its comparatives and superlatives by adding /-er/ and /-est/. Children's logic shows the same tendencies.

Jean Berko Gleason tells of an experiment in which a child was shown pictures of one mouse and two mice and told, 'This is a mouse and now there are two mice.' The examiner then asked, 'What's this? and this?' The first graders in particular answered 'one mouse—two mouses' or 'two gooses' or the 'bell ringed,' having only a second before heard the correct form.[6]

Word order is important in English. Children learn its common patterns early, but if a pattern becomes reversed, as it does in the passive, children find it hard to learn. If one asks a first grade child to respond to two pictures — one of a cat chasing a dog and the other of a dog chasing a cat — by pointing to the picture called 'the cat is chased by the dog,'' only about half of them respond correctly. They ignore the little words that signal the passive and respond only to the word order.

All of this makes it clear that the child does not learn his language entirely by imitation and as a series of separate items. He early senses patterns, rules for the operation of his language, and applies them. The evolution of syntactive rules and sentence types is remarkably similar in most children.

Wick Miller, formerly of Berkeley and now in Utah, is convinced that each child appears to create anew the phonology and syntax of his language. He says, 'The evidence supports the notion that the child develops a set of rules, tests the rules with the sentences he hears, and changes, modifies, abandons, and elaborates his rules in the light of what he hears'.[9]

Kornei Chukovsky, a writer and student of children's language in the Soviet Union, reported on children's grammatical skill:

> . . . A child having no notion of grammatical rules uses quite correctly all noun cases, verb tenses, and moods, even when he uses unfamiliar words. This perceptive use of words is a most amazing phenomenon of early childhood.
>
> . . . children's locutions are often more 'correct' than grammar and 'improve' upon it.
>
> . . . Not in vain did Leo Tolstoy, addressing himself to adults, write, ' . . . (The Child) realizes the laws of word formation better than you because no one so often thinks up new words as children'.[2]

Mrs Gleason furnishes examples of this latter point from the talk of her own children. A child of two and a half was feeling put upon when someone asked her, 'Who loves you?' and she answered, 'Nobody!' Later, when she felt better about it she was asked again, 'Who loves you?' and she answered, 'Yesbody,' a creation by analogy which was clearly her own. Another child of three asked, 'Mommy, what do giraffes eat?' Following her mother's answer, 'Well, they eat leaves, mostly,' the child thought a bit and asked, 'And what do they eat lessly?'

Every teacher and many parents can add to the list of children's language inventions. These inventions make it very clear that children's language learning is not all imitation. Imitation functions of necessity in the learning of vocabulary items but the child very early creates sentences of his own that are not copies of adult sentences. Whatever it is that the child does, it is extremely complex — a remarkable type of theory construction; and he does it in an astonishingly short time.

Chukovsky says,

> In truth, the young child is the hardest mental toiler on our planet. Fortunately, he does not even suspect this . . . Among the early acquisitions of the child's mind, the one having the highest value is his treasure of words and grammar. He himself notices the gigantic effort he is exerting while he accomplishes this learning so systematically, expediently and expeditiously . . . This 'most inquisitive of all creatures, the child 'from two to five', values knowledge above all else.[2]

What the Child's Language Reveals

To return to the statement with which this paper began, every child brings to school a language. That language tells his teacher three things. The quality of the child's language mirrors the language of his home and the educational and cultural level of his parents. The vocabulary a child has amassed tells of his experience; if there are many nouns, he has had wide first-hand and vicarious experience and opportunity to talk about it; the presence of many verbs indicates that he has engaged in many activities, again either actually or vicariously. The child's language behavior tells of his self-image: self-respecting, confident, and outgoing, or timid, repressed, and fearful. The one thing the child's language cannot tell the teacher is how bright the child is. The child's language is a product of his life experience. He learned what he had opportunity to learn — what was there for him. If his parents speak English well, use a wide vocabulary, and talk with the child about his interests, he also speaks English well. If the language of his home is Pennsylvania Dutch, Spanish American, Appalachian, Southern Negro, Gullah, or just the 'Me and him ain't got none' variety, that is what the child has learned and all that he could learn, however bright he might be. If this language is a kind that will stand in his way in the economic and social world, the school is obligated to do everything in its power to help him add to his repertoire informal standard English. Since the child's school books as well as most that he will read outside of school are written in this language, his success in learning to read is closely related to the school's success in helping him with language.

This learning calls for a great deal of opportunity to hear and gradually to use the target English. Yet in all too many schools, teachers start immediately at the beginning of the year to work on reading without learning what each child can do with language; and many teachers, because of the pressure to teach reading, make little use of oral language. Herbert Muller in reporting the Dartmouth Conference at which British and American scholars and teachers discussed the language and reading programs in their respective countries, says, in speaking of some of the strange methods:

> And the neglect of talking by the schools has become stranger in the modern world, where people are listening to more talk than ever before in history, on radio and television, and many are doing more talking too in the endless committees and conferences alike in business, government, and the professional world. In the democracies

which make so much on free speech, the torrent of platitudinous, illogical, often irresponsible talk, and its acceptance by lazy, uncritical listeners, are provoking books of alarm.[10]

This alarm is equally great as one sees what people who can read will read uncritically, if they read at all.

Language and Reading

It is language that the child must learn to read — and the language may or may not match the child's own language. Educational principles, to which everyone gives lip service but which are as often honored in the breach as in the observance in the teaching of reading, are the principles of working from the known to the unknown and of building on previously laid foundations. And what has one to work with? The child has learned a language and in the doing of it has proved himself for a short time almost a language-learning genius. He has done something that no older person ever does with the same efficiency. And he has done it all without carefully sequenced lessons — in fact with no lessons at all. The experience was not programed, sequentially. The child did his own programing. While children all follow, as Lenneberg has said, the same basic timetable, they do it idiosyncratically. Some start earlier and learn fast; others start later and learn more slowly.

What are the child's assets for learning to read? Every child who has learned to talk has learned to concentrate on what he heard. He has learned to give attention to patterns, schemes of operation, and apply them in his own way. He has learned the basic phonology of a language and also its basic syntax. In doing all this, he has learned to give attention to sound and schemes of operation. He is deeply interested in language and recognizes its worth in his daily living. Certainly all of this activity is of value in learning to read.

Durkin, in studies of children who read early, found that the interest that led many of these children into reading was interest in writing. This conclusion means, of course, that these children started with their own language, not the arbitrarily prepared language of someone who knew nothing about the individual's interests and concerns.[4] Because they knew what they were writing, awareness of symbol-sound correspondence came naturally, as well as awareness of sequence of letters. And certainly there were no problems of comprehension because the child was helped to write what he wanted to write.

A Language Approach to Reading

For children of all levels of language attainment, no approach to reading seems to make as much sense at the very beginning as that of turning the child's own spoken language into graphic form. Children learn what reading and writing are and that conceiving ideas, putting them into words, and putting those into sequences of graphic symbols must procede reading. William S. Gray said more than once after his return from studying reading and writing in the UNESCO countries that he found reading and writing being taught almost everywhere as two sides of the same coin. Yet even today, the typical basal reading pattern in the United States divorces reading from writing almost completely.

A major value in a language approach to reading (**'an approach'** and not **'the approach'** since no two teachers do it exactly alike) is that the language that is written can be the children's own language. One must be both considerate enough and daring enough to write what a child actually says, not the revised version of what he says. If the child says, 'Him a good dog. He go he house,' or 'He busy. He bes always busy,' that is what is written and read back to the child. Later, perhaps considerably later for some children, one can help him say what he wants to say the way it is said in books, but not at the very beginning when the purpose is for the child to identify his own talk in graphic symbol form.

Schemes for teaching reading that give attention to both reading and writing are winning favor in many schools. But the writing cannot, **must not,** be just copying the material in readers and workbooks. It must stem from the child himself and what he considers worth

the labor of writing. Spelling is learned incidentally as a child has need for it. In fact, the language skills are taught in their interrelationships, not as separate, unrelated or little-related entities. Through such experience the child learns much of what he needs to know about symbol-sound relationships.

Reading as Decoding

The writer cannot let this opportunity pass without remarking on Jeanne Chall's challenging, provocative, and very valuable book.[1] It is interesting that everyone approaches it with his own particular bias, the writer not excluded. In it Chall calls attention to her conviction that schemes for teaching beginning reading that give attention to code-breaking seem to achieve better results than those schemes which give major attention to meaning. Is there any other field where personal biases and vested interest are given as much professional and commercial protection as the field of reading? Already it appears true that advocates of basal reading schemes which emphasize meaning are on the defensive; everyone who has a separate phonics scheme, whether a fly-by-night one or one based on independent research, is putting out new advertising material and strengthening the pressure on schools; and everyone who espouses a code-based teaching scheme other than phonics is begging to be heard.

No one wants, hopefully, the kind of code-breaking which Horace Mann condemned in 1837 in his report to the Massachusetts Board of Education. He said, 'It is as absurd to teach children sounds without meaning as to teach them to chew without food . . . Children come to school knowing words by ear, tongue, and mind. Now they must learn to know them by eye.'

The writer has recently heard a number of people in reading speak with disapproval or even scorn of Chall's emphasis on code-breaking. Yet isn't that what everyone has done when he learned to read — whether he did it on his own initiative and out of awareness while he listened with attentive delight to his mother's reading of familiar stories, or learned it through television and helping his mother at the supermarket, or caught on to it through his interest in writing or dictating for someone else to write, or worked it out with his ABC blocks or on daddy's old typewriter, or learned it at school? Somehow, somewhere he learned it or he would not now be reading.

Almost everyone who has responded emotionally with either jubilation (mostly outside IRA) or dismay (mostly within IRA) seem to overlook some very important facts. Chall has not advocated any **method** of helping children break the code of English reading. Neither has she repudiated or minimized the importance of meaning and of reading as thinking. She has, in the writer's judgment, opened the doors wide for new approaches which can be adjusted to the needs of individual children. Will it ever be possible in the United States to look at reading without coming in the last analysis to the ——— company's method, the ——— programed method, to the ——— linguistic method, the ——— phonics method, or any other established method and look instead at what each child has achieved, how he seems to learn best, what he now needs and then to teach reading through adapting procedures to fit the needs of each child?

The Revolution in England

In an article in **The New Republic** Joseph Featherstone describes schools seen in England during an intensive period of observation

> How they learn reading offers a clear example of the kind of individual learning and teaching going on in these classrooms, even in quite large ones. Reading is not particularly emphasized, and my purpose in singling it out is purely illustrative, though the contrast between English classes and most American ones, where reading is a formidable matter, is vivid and depressing.
>
> At first it is hard to say just how they do learn reading, since there are no separate subjects. A part of the answer slowly becomes clear, and it surprises American visitors used to thinking of the teacher as the generating force of education: children learn from each other. They hang around

> the library corners long before they can read, handling the books, looking at pictures, trying to find words they do know, listening and watching as the teacher hears other children's reading . . .
>
> Teachers use a range of reading schemes, sight reading, phonics, and so forth, whatever seems to work with a child. Increasingly in the good infant schools, there are not textbooks and no class readers. There are just books in profusion . . .
>
> However a child picks up reading, it will involve learning to write at the same time, and some write before they can read; there is an attempt to break down the mental barrier between the spoken, the written and the printed word.[5]

Some British teachers who came to this country to teach were appalled by the teachers' guides that accompany reading systems in the United States and that tell the teacher what to say and do for practically every sentence in the children's books. They consider so much guidance (or prescription) an affront, an insult to their intelligence. Perhaps one needs to find ways to prepare teachers to understand language and how it is learned, to understand the skills of literacy, and to understand how to study children and their needs and then to free teachers to be the professional experts they can and would like to be.

Featherstone calls learning to read a formidable experience in this country. It need not be so. Reading is not the same as talking. Learning to read cannot exactly parallel learning to talk. Everyone recognizes that the language of writing is not identical with the language of speech. But the children are the same children who learned a language. Can ways be found that put less emphasis on teaching and more on learning? Can more of the challenge, more of the excitement and thrill of personal discovery and personal success be put into the teaching of reading as well as into the learning of it? In the opinion of this writer it can be done.

References—see page 222.

Pre-School Education — It's Development, Problems and Perspectives

Dr V. Misurcova

The need to perfect the education of man which is objectively established by ever increasing demands for a higher level of education in a period of scientific-technical revolution suggests a number of urgent questions to the humanistic sciences. One of the important questions of recent pedagogical theory and practice is the system of preschool education. We understand the system of pre-school education as a complex of educational theories and their correlations and interrelations toward educational activity concerning the children from birth up to the age of six.

The first thinker in the history of education who created an educational system was J. A. Comenius. His system was based on the idea of life-long education of every man and directed to the universal reform of human society. Within his philosophical-pedagogical conception Comenius developed his system of education of children under six. Pre-school education was for him a starting point for his socio-reforming endeavours and a basis for further education throughout life. He developed his ideas on pre-school education in his writings 'School of Infancy',[1] 'The Great Didactic',[2] and 'Pampaedia'.[3]

Comenius' consideration of the function of pre-school education contain some suggestions of ancient writers, who explained the significance of pre-school education as the beginning when everything is formed and acquires its characteristic features; the experience which is achieved in childhood remains firmly in the consciousness of the child for the whole of its life. Comenius compares the child's soul with a seed in which the whole plant is contained. Since 'children know everything as a possibility while in fact they know only what they have been taught' . . . the beginning of education is very important . . . care must be taken that the first impressions become the right directive for wisdom

and the first habits become the ideas of virtue'.[4] If the pre-school age has not been devoted to education it means for the child a loss of time, of opportunity and of ability and for the educator a waste of energy; re-education is more difficult than education.

A starting point of Comenius' system of education is a category of aims of pre-school education and it is felt as a part of general education goals in the sense of the individual as well as social development of the child. Education in the pre-school age has to create pre-suppositions for the development of all faculties of the child in order that the adult may achieve life wisdom, i.e. achieve understanding of the whole world and of human actions directed toward the benefit of mankind.

Comenius held that from the aim of education a content of education may be derived. The content is given by the tradition and by the endeavour of the age, according to scientific knowledge and social progress. Like the aim, the content of education also starts with a complex conception of realities and his principles basically agree with all educational influences on man; the differences are in emphasising some of the aspects regarding the developmental capacity of children. Among the general principles which have been derived by Comenius from the pansophia, and which influenced the content of education and instruction as had been explained by D. Capkova, let us mention especially the universalism of J. A. Comenius. This universalism may be seen in the search for improvement, a reform of the content of education in all its aspects, regarding all educational factors; persons, things, place, time and method.

Further principles on which Comenius' system has been based are the idea of the harmony of activities, both physical and mental; this harmony is important not only for the development of the physical powers and the mental faculties of the child but also for the development of knowledge. In the system of Comenius the idea of the unity of content and method finds a significant place; this idea enables a selection of the matter and organization of it into a system; thus it is intended that this idea should lead children to mastering it. The basic criterion which integrates the content and method, is a constant regard to the development of the child, to his needs and possibilities of his age, a constant regard to the necessity of assuring a harmonious development of his physical and mental powers, of his intellectual, emotional, moral and social qualities.

According to these general criteria, Comenius defines the content and methods of education of children under the age of six. The content is divided into educational components which are in strict correlation. Comenius starts with physical education which means a case of health, both physical and mental and the development of natural movement. Intellectual education means education in discipline, i.e. to let children become acquainted with basic knowledge adequate for pre-school age, then training in activities both intellectual and manual in the form of spontaneous and intentional, directed child-play. The system of concepts which has been presented to the child should enable it to form in its mind a truthful picture of the world and understand connections between individual phenomena; at the same time this system should develop perception and thinking, and also emotion and will — a preparation for the social behaviour of the child. A significant role is given to training in language, to the development of children's speech as regards vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. So far as moral education is concerned the first means the development of character qualities in the adult is correctly understood learning matter, and later on character education on the basis of good examples supplemented by teaching.

Religious education in the house of the Unity of Brethren meant that children were taught to pray, to sing hymns in the vernacular and they were taught to follow some principles of the religious community. The whole content of education in the pre-school age is aimed at an all-round development of the personality of the child in respect of the natural develop-

ment of the needs of the child.

In pre-school education Comenius thinks also of preparation for school. Positive emotional relations towards school should be developed; children have to be prepared socially to enable them to live in a more complicated social organization than in a family. Comenius' system of pre-school education originally was aimed at family education; later he developed the idea of certain educational institutions which would help society. The children from a neighbourhood could gather, under the surveillance of respectable women, for playing and also by means of various games, they could learn how to write and read. This preparation is to make possible the continuity of pre-school education and school education. This transition is made possible by the universal goal — education of everybody, of all, in everything and in all ways, with the constant purpose of the improvement of individuals as well as of communities, and of society as a whole.

Comenius' conception of the system of pre-school education of children up to the age of six has not lost its stimulation for the theory and practice of pre-school education even at the present day, although naturally, some features have been out-dated by more than three centuries of development of society and education. The relation of our thinking to the tradition of Comenius depends primarily on the fact that education develops the conceptional structure of Comenius' educational theory naturally varied in accordance with the development of scientific knowledge and conditions of living in the new era.

The dynamics of the development of production and of social relations cause a child and his education to be not only the problem of a family but to become a social question; this fact changes the relation between family and public education. By public education " . . . is meant the situation when parents will be released from the duty to feed the child and society will guarantee the child not only the means of existence but will also care for the child to have all that it needs for its full and versatile development'.

In this spirit, public education is carried out in our country, where the state guarantees the production of what is necessary for the satisfaction of children's needs within the whole scope of social production, provides free preventive and medical care, provides the family with economic and pedagogical-cultural help, builds children's cultural, sport and recreational institutions and in particular it extends the network of public educational arrangements, nurseries and nursery schools. The methods and vitality of these establishments, namely of nursery schools were justified throughout more than one hundred and fifty years of their development. The nursery school can provide a child with continuous education, vocationally directed, and enables it to come into contact with children of the same age group, which is important for the child's healthy social development. Also it has been proved on the basis of a number of scientific experiments that the optimum development of a child is necessarily conditioned by the connection between education in public institutions and good family education, which creates opportunities for full development of the child, namely on the emotional side.

In public educational institutions an attempt is made to introduce the latest results of scientific discoveries in the education of the youngest. The category of the objective is one of the basic categories of pedagogy: the method of affecting man is one of the essential features which differentiates human activity from activity occurring in nature. Speaking about objectives in education we have in mind the system of those objectives which contain either general objectives or partial objectives in which the highest objective in concretized. General objectives are derived from the underlining of principles, determining the relation between social development and individual development and can be formulated as a versatile and harmonious development of personality in the socialistic society.

The concept of universality contains the anthropological viewpoint — the unity of the physical and mental part of man, the psycho-

logical viewpoint — the development of all psychic processes and features of man's character and the cultural — sociological viewpoint — the development of man's relations towards all areas of culture: towards science, art, technology and the world of human labour. Education of a child in the pre-school period is to contribute to the completion by the general goal of education. The way in which to concretize the general educational goal with regard to pre-school age and every child individually, is amongst the vital and essential questions of the contemporary theory of pre-school education.

The way towards its solution is shown by the investigation of the content of education. It can be divided into five parts — physical, intellectual, moral work and aesthetic; each part can be further divided into elements (e.g. physical education contains a daily schedule, the need for physical cleanness and the creation of hygienic habits, strengthening and physical exercises). The system of the content is generally given by this. Now the main concern is to deepen it so that all its elements will be within the framework of its individual parts and with regard to the whole complex organically unified so that it enables the child to master the complex of knowledge, activities and qualities which would correspond to the viewpoint of versatility, which would respect age particularities of children and would be functional from the viewpoint of their further development and the needs of their individual and social life.

As an example I introduce the sphere of aesthetic education, where an effort to deepen the system was more especially realized in the last decade. Aesthetic education by which is meant purposive formation of the child's aesthetic relation towards reality, comprises artistic, literary, musical, dance and drama education, and education by non-artistic means. Because each of them was developed up to a certain point in isolation and without any regard to the complex of aesthetic education, the situation was created that in contemporary artistic, music and dance education, the active part prevails considerably and in drama and literary education it is the perceptive part. Investigation of the genesis of aesthetic feeling in all areas of aesthetic-educational work would make it possible, we believe, to surpass this one-sided approach and to reach a further development of individual aesthetic-educational performance. Understanding which features of reality, in which way and under which conditions influence aesthetically children would reveal natural connections between individual aesthetic-educational spheres to balance the disproportions between the active and perceptive part, to work out new methods and in particular to concretize the requirements for the creation of new works of art for children, which are the necessary condition for further development and enrichment of the aesthetic-educational system.

Favourable conditions have been created for the realisation and application of the whole complex of the system of pre-school education by the Education Act of 1960 which includes pre-school education in the total system of education and enable the gradual realisation of an idea concerning the harmonious influence of all components on all members of society starting with the youngest.

The creation of a system of pre-school education requires the solution of many problems by educational theory. Concretization of the goal of education and elaboration of the system of the content of individual educational components, revelation of mutual relations between educational components (intellectual, moral, aesthetic, physical and work education), significance of activity and play during the course of harmonious shaping of the child's intellectual and physical features, the relation between activity, understanding, thinking and language in pre-school age belongs among the above mentioned problems. When solving these questions, philosophical, sociological, psychological, anthropological, other sciences will have necessarily to be taken into account and the results of the methodology of modern science will have to be utilised, especially the idea of system theory.

Dr Maria Montessori, 1870-1952

The Origins of Montessori

J. Ewart Smart, O.B.E., M.A., B.Sc., Ph.D.

Introduction

Dr Maria Montessori, the foundress of the Montessori Educational Philosophy, was born at Chiaraville, Ancona, Italy, on August 31st, 1870. She was the only daughter of Cavaliere Alessandra Montessori, an active member of Risorgimento, an establishment of liberal aspirations, whose main objects were to promote freedom and national unity. Round about the year 1870 her father experienced the joy of witnessing the realisation of his fondest hopes but that freedom upon which he laid much store, nation wide, bore little resemblance to that practised in his home.

The stern, autocratic bearing of the mid-Victorian head of the family was evidently not confined to England, but happily for Maria she had the good fortune to possess a mother endowed with the qualities of intellectual understanding and knowledge combined with an independent outlook and a determination to secure for her daughter that freedom to develop her potentialities so hardly gained, but when exceptionally applied, conspicuous by its masculine unilaterality.

Entry to Lower School

At the age of 3, Maria accompanied her parents to Rome and in due course entered the lower school. This lower school was typical of the times, stiff, starchy and fully regimented, allied to chalk and talk sufficiently to ensure that repressive atmosphere in which the docile remained docile and prospered, whilst the occasional rebel geniuses became more rebellious and finally emerged as 'difficult' children. These children were fortified in their efforts of resistance against this respectable formalism by their highly developed sense of humour. At the same time they stored in their minds the various examples of humiliations and injustices they were made to suffer in the hope of righting these wrongs at some opportune time in the future. Thus we observe the origin of the Montessori movement, the revolt against fomalism and the intention to substitute human relationships therefore, the introduction of a realistic environment, the cultivation of a spirit of independence, all culminating in a worldwide movement for the promotion of the Cause of the Child.

Late Development

The picture suggested to us of the child who refused to be normalised and who gloried in her position as bottom of the class by ridiculing her persecutors, arouses in us a sense of wonder and curiosity as to the means adopted to transform a misjudged 'mediocrity' into an outstanding scholar, capable of absorbing the knowledge previously eschewed and later emerging from the High School with qualifications which ensured a swift transition to the Faculty of Engineering of the University of Rome. It was a wonderful feat to secure admission to a faculty which tradition had pronounced as suitable only for men. But Maria had the pioneering spirit and her experiences in meeting poverty, pain and sickness at first hand convinced her that her mission lay in working in the domain of medicine to which faculty she transferred in due course.

Interference with tradition

By some, interference with tradition is not regarded as a happy omen. Her fellow students strenuously opposed her attendance at the course and at one of the scientific demonstrations, the antagonism became so furious and hostile as to cause the professor to intervene with vehemence and threatened retaliation against her aggressors. So Maria was allowed to continue her course without further hindrance in an atmosphere of splendid isolation. In her home, however, Maria experienced a paternal coolness verging on frigidity, tempered by the kindly counsel and the sturdy support rendered by her patient and farseeing mother.

At the end of the course her father had to be informed at his office that the Faculty of Medicine in the University of Rome had experienced a unique phenomenon — a young lady had headed the class list and had gained

the coveted prize, the highest award. From this time the father recognised that his daughter was no ordinary student, but a dynamic personality possessed of a spirit of adventure, ready to do battle with all and sundry for the rights of the child. And the coolness quickly melted away as the father perceived that this freedom for which he had fought and helped to win for his beloved country was now to be implemented, sooner or later, in every country in the world, and that his own daughter, the first woman to receive the degree of Doctor of Medicine of the University of Rome was to be the spearhead of the International Movement, established to formulate and uphold the rights of the child.

The Experience with Mental Defectives

But the campaign had to wait; there was work to be done involving much researching and practical experience. She became an instructress in her University's psychiatric clinic. In the course of her work, she visited the Insane Asylum of Rome, which housed a group of mentally defective children. The sight and plight of these poor unfortunate misfits aroused in her a feeling of pity and compassion sufficient to compel her to concentrate all her energy and genius on the solution of this often conveniently forgotten great social problem. By the creation of her now famous 'exercises in practical life' and her prepared environment, she caused to develop in these children a spirit of independence and self discipline, by making full use of their intellectual powers and awakening in them a sense of human dignity, which influenced by the love she bore them, encouraged them to frown on boredom and its eager ally vandalism and to seek the joys of friendship and co-operative effort. Her experiments led her to the conclusion that in connection with the training of mental deficients the best approach was pedagogical rather than medical. (This principle has now been recognised by the present British Government which proposes to transfer the administration of the mentally defective services from the Ministry of Health to the Ministry of Education.) This demanded a complete survey and analysis of the pedagogical field, often involving translations from the original, e.g., Seguin's work from the original French, a study of the Old Masters and their methods and a continual series of experiments all of which in due time crystallised into a system of education termed the Montessori Method, and in the use of the word 'method' there was ever in the mind of Maria a danger of rigid formalism, rules and regulations governed by a regimented discipline, 'and children in straight jackets like butterflies pinned to sheets'. She preferred to talk and write about what she termed 'her experiences'. World wide interest was created by her report on her experiments to the Pedagogical Congress in Turin in 1898 and her results induced the pioneering establishment of special schools for the education of mentally defectives in Italy and later in other countries.

In 1898 she was appointed directress of the Scuola Ortifrenica in Rome where she had the pleasure of seeing several eight year old defectives pass the State Examination in reading and writing. Thus emboldened and fortified by her observations in elementary schools, she decided at the first opportunity to apply the principles used in the education of defectives to the education of normal children under her system of free discipline. The effect was startling. Notice was being taken of her results, in particular the Institute Romano di Beni Stabili became interested and decided to attach to each block of dwellings a Children's House — a Casa dei Bambini.

Casa dei Bambini

Dr Montessori was placed in charge of one of these units, her sole assistant being the daughter of the Caretaker. As we should say in England, she 'started from scratch', an ideal situation for one blessed with the gifts of imagination, creation and improvisation but a challenge to anyone confronted with a gang of 60 double-eyed young rascals of age range 3 to 6 years, defiant of authority and eager to despoil. And yet she disarmed them with a smile. If there was a shortage of seating accommodation the children worked on mats spread on the floor, adopting the position to which they were accustomed. For apparatus there was Seguin's — there were literally scores of pieces of equipment and toys scat-

tered in all sorts of institutions, used in the past by countless numbers of children, and there was scope for the introduction of well designed scientific material necessary to demonstrate and illustrate the new principles and the new discoveries.

There was opportunity enough to ascertain the intelligence quotients of the children and their reactions to the use of all the types of apparatus. Some of the pieces of apparatus stood the test and were retained, others failed and were discarded. Gradually by noting the continual use by various age groups of children she was enabled to arrange the apparatus in a psychological order to fit the chain of mental development. The choice of subjects was made by the child and mastery was accomplished by constant repetition and practice, analagous to the practice undertaken to endeavour to attain perfection in games.

In the manipulation of the apparatus, emphasis was placed on the fact that the operation was one of work, directed consciously or unconsciously towards the attainment of certain ends; one for example being the mastery of the 3 R's and this and others co-operating in the development of the child towards adulthood, the dynamic energy or psyche in the child being utilised as a propelling force.

A great change

There resulted a great change in the demeanour and behaviour of the children and by comparison with children educated by traditional methods, the 'freedom' children more than held their own. For the first time in their lives, they had been regarded as 'persons' and treated with all the dignity and understanding that that term implies. In an environmental atmosphere designed especially for children and working with scientifically designed apparatus, didactic, precise and self-corrective, even the dullest child recognised its challenge and in time learned to concentrate on the task before him and to enjoy the culminating efforts — the discovery, in an ecstasy of joy which filled him with satisfaction and spurred him on to greater triumphs. No wonder the Casa dei Bambini had become a world talking point and was visited by ardent educationalists from all over the world.

Conclusion

Here in a slum environment in face of almost every human and material obstacle, there had happened another birth, the birth of a Cause inaugurated by a child born nearly 2,000 years ago — in a stable.

(I wish to acknowledge the kindness of Mr Mario Montessori, Director-General of the Association of Montessori Internationale, and of Prof. G. Rogers of the Guildhall School of Music, London, for permitting me to make use of his researches.)

Educational Priority Areas and the Community School

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The Liverpool E.P.A. Project is one of five branches of a national, government-sponsored exploration into the ways in which the educational problems of socially deprived localities might be met. It is based on Oxford University (the National Director is A. H. Halsey, head of the Oxford Social and Administrative Studies department) and, apart from the Paddington area of Liverpool, Dundee, the Sparkbrook neighbourhood of Birmingham, the London borough of Deptford and Denaby Main in the West Riding are involved. The project runs for three years and we are now at the halfway stage. The grant was £175,000, hardly enough these days to buy a decent footballer, and, by the time salaries are paid and the monies distributed, it meant relatively meagre rations all round for a project of this kind. The initiative to mount this action-research programme was, of course, the Plowden Report and a Plowden member, Michael Young, the well-known sociologist, is chairman of the National Steering Committee. Al-

though not directly connected with the relevant l.e.a. obviously the relationship between project and local authority was critically paramount. The Liverpool project has been especially happy in striking a harmonious balance with the Liverpool education department. Help has been forthcoming in many ways, such as the installation and administrative subsistence of the project and extra assistance to the seven 'project' schools (seven of Liverpool's designated thirty-two schools were chosen for project use).

This kind of venture has many ramifications. The spin-off has been considerable and the project has too many facets to cover in a single article. Two major pieces of pure research, nationally designed across the E.P.A. areas, might be mentioned. One is the collation of most detailed baseline data, of children's attainments, of parents' and teachers' and of community indicators of all kinds. This should provide one of the most meaningful profiles of educational life in an E.P.A. yet constructed. The other is a linguistic development experiment for under-fives, now so often regarded as the crucial age, based on a very attractive American language kit. This should help the creation of properly thought-out language treatments for the pre-school level. Beyond this, each project enjoys substantial local autonomy, endeavouring through a series of probes to arrive at a few answers to the desparate issues at stake. Much of this action will not be evaluated by pristine research method so much as carefully assessed, interpreted and described in a rather more pragmatic manner. All in all, our task is to report back to the Department of Education and Science with a national E.P.A. policy for implementation in the nineteen seventies.

A main thread runs through the bewildering maze of variegated activities up and down the country and that thread is 'the community school'. The Community school was recommended by Plowden as a priority for priority areas and much of our task aims at laying some frame of reference for its construction. Given a small team, a small budget and a small time-span, obviously nothing revolutionary can be expected. But we might clarify, at least, the definition and format of the E.P.A. community school; we might offer the hypothesis for a community school which, over the next score or so years, might be set up and tested; and we might offer a package deal or check list on community school implementation which could be taken up and adapted nationally, locally, by a particular head teacher and school or even by an especial class teacher and class.

There are many definitions of community school as there are people talking about it. I would like to approach the matter rather more in the long term, postulating the objective towards which the community school is but a limited if necessary step. Briefly, it is a question of what sort of community, rather than what sort of school. My own opinion, urgently confirmed by experience on this project, is that the city community can only save itself from sterile, anonymous greyness by devolution into 'neighbourhood' or 'village' groups, each with a large measure of autonomy, yet able to draw richly on those facilities which only the larger entity can economically provide. The first priority in a priority area, as we predictably discovered, is to identify the area; to decide on the arena within which action should be attempted: to discover the "community' as a real fulcrum for individual responsibility. People cannot be 'communal' in abstract vacuo. It would seem to me that a federated neighbourhood pattern might omit the worst and retain the best of both metropolitan and parochial worlds, giving the largescale services without the remoteness of the one, and the compactness without the smallscale inefficiency of the other.

This is assuredly not novel. One must confess that Aristotle, with his concept of the 'know-everyone' polis, predates us; that the medievals perhaps had an instinct for corporateness; that some pioneer utopian thinkers of the 19th century — Kropotkin's 'league of leagues' for instance — touched on this: and that some contemporary psychology and social anthropology, especially in its view of numbers and 'space', also makes the point. In practical terms, one might think in terms

of neighbourhood blocs of a few thousand inhabitants, with an immediate allegiance to and participation in a very clearly defined community. Localised amenities, geographically and administratively, would flow fluently into one another; the school would not be the 'centre' for, ideally, there would be a series of focal points. The weakness of the community school, as such, is that it implies centralism, with the community pouring towards it. The school in the community I envisage would be less distinguishable as a core than that.

Nonetheless, it might be helpful to begin an exploration of this mythical community from its educational aspect. The school facilities would obviously be used for communal purposes, and amentities — sports grounds and services, for instance — could be shared. But the whole concept is multipurpose. The shopping centre would be linked, for it is a natural meeting point for child, teacher and parent. It might have a very useful pre-school playgroup attached, and children's work would be evident in and around the shops. The local library would abutt the school, its children's section, in fact, the school library; conversely, the library would thereby lead its patrons towards the adult educational scope of the school. The health clinic-cum-group surgery would have a child-health division which would adjoin the school in the same manner. The school would be small, outward-looking and all age, adequately geared to ripening human relationships. One could continue to ennumerate examples, but these few will suffice. And in each case the city could nodally supply the largescale resources — the huge store, the large hospital, the sizeable reference library and the well-equipped educational centre and so on — for intermittent usage.

Somehow the human relationships — participation as it is fashionably labelled — must be restored, without losing the high standard of public services that, it would appear, only large, faceless bureaucracy can provide. Sitting in an E.P.A. one watches the threads work out from the city centre — housing, education, libraries, parks, health and rest. By the time they reach the E.P.A., they sometimes have knotted themselves in a tangle. There must be vertical as well as horizontal stratas of administration, with well knit groups of inter-professional officers lending expertise to local self-government. Just as I suggest a bipartite social structure, so must administration be similarly aligned. The Home Office Community Development Projects (one of which is in Liverpool) may evolve something on these lines.

Apart from a thousand obstacles, many might argue that it is insular in conception. I base my belief on a feeling that insularity is what people want, if, by that, one means the security of personal commitment to a community. I speak as one to whom England's soccer fortunes mean nothing compared to those of Manchester United, and to whom the superficial blandishments of a world community appear horrific as one observes the grey anonymity that even a large town seems unable to withstand.

This is an idyll. But halting steps could and are being made. A vision is needed to ensure that the halting steps are set fair in the right direction. The E.P.A. project is mounting tiny little schemes, but all of them, at least in part, look forward to that idyll. Otherwise they would be plumbing jobs, patching up the odd leak here and there. I do not apologise either for the long-term view or for the philosophy; it is a time for philosophy rather than logistics, for talking about, 'homes' rather than 'housing'. The role, surely, of education and social action is to close, however minutely, the yawning chasm between the ideal and the real.

The ideal, then, is of a school welcoming in and venturing out into the community, so much so that it becomes difficult to decide where one starts and the other ends. Our belief is that, deprived communities must eventually rejuvenate themselves, and that the task of education is to involve the school with the community as closely as possible, so that the reality of the situation is clear to children, parents and teachers. Only on an informed awareness of this reality is it possible for children to learn to articulate needs and con-

struct positive responses. So much for the ideal. The real is enormously more humdrum and mundane, as we try to probe the possibilities on a minute scale.

In Liverpool we are trying a series of mini-projects in our seven associated schools, each one could be a step toward the consummation of community schooling. We started two or three such explorations in each school, amounting to about twenty-five in all; one or two never left the ground; most did and several were successful enough to warrant offering to the other schools, thereby setting up a 'multiplier' process. In the final year of the project we hope to go beyond the associated seven schools and sell our wares throughout the other E.P.A. schools. The administrative structure underpinning this enterprise has been a Local Steering Committee, with representatives from the l.e.a., the University, the education committee, the inspectorate and so on, a Standing Committee of headteachers, a Teacher Liaison Committee and a College Tutors' Liaison Committee. The Colleges have provided task-forces for the project in the shape of E.P.A. option courses — tutor-led groups of students having a specialist E.P.A. bias in their course and regularly committed to a particular school. Over 200 students are so involved in a peak week.

The actual mini-projects fall into two principle catgeories, the one curricular, the other parental-cum-communal. Some people express surprise at the need for curricular reappraisal in a community school, but it is fallacious to think of the community school merely as an 'open' as opposed to a 'closed' school, with perhaps some extra use of plant like dad coming in of an evening to do a bit of fretwork. If this were so, it would be the same old package with new labels; the old show with a few more peep-holes. Particularly in E.P.A.'s, the school needs a community-oriented syllabus. This refers back to the goal of the community school in terms of so familiarising children with their purportedly deprived neighbourhood that they will be possibly able to create constructive responses to it. Moreover, a curriculum based on the child's reality meets the requirements of the 'child-centredness' urged on us by educational psychologists; and it is likely to produce a more stable base than hitherto for children to improve in the traditional school attainments like reading and writing.

One cannot pretend that enormous headway has been made in this field. Changes are less spectacular but more subtle than in home and school experiments. It is partly a question of changing teaching attitudes as well as teaching substance. To take, for the sake of argument, the topics of 'thrift' or 'police' which teachers traditionally approach with the utmost respect. In E.P.A.'s the 'thrifty' are mean and miserable and the policeman is occasionally persona non grata. Teachers may have to be rather more open-ended in their discussion of environmental features and characteristics, for the aim is to produce socially critical and aware people; the voters, citizens and, indeed, parents of the next generation of E.P.A. adults. Another good example is the lip-service paid now by planners to 'consultation', but knocking at a front door and asking what sort of environ the occupier wants is scarcely enough. People have not been educated to listen to questions like that nor create answers to them. A knowledge of quadratic equations and 'The View from Westminster Bridge' won't help them.

Nonetheless, some adjustment of curriclum has been tried. Schools are involving themselves in very rigorous and detailed explorations of the immediate environment, not so much moving from the known to the unknown as making the known more 'knowable'. Creative work based on realistic themes — buildings, fathers' occupations — and animal-plant life studies with an eye to the high-rise dweller are two other modes. Probably the most fullrun and picturesque example is a simulated supermarket (constructed with the help of many commercial undertakings) in one of the schools. This is an average-sized store which can act as the focus for all kinds of practical and theoretical mathematics, the location for highly realistic art-work like window-display and trading stamps, the basis for very important social studies such as con-

sumer thinking, budgetting and 'coping' and the overall significance of shopping and the stimulus for valuable moral educational debate on the lines of shop-lifting, advertising, tobacco and so forth. This forms an excellent illustration of an integrated syllabus arising from an immediate link-up with the child's world. In a real sense, 'supermarket' is a more useful 'subject' than the normal academic ones. The wonderful methodology of the primary school is ideal for this kind of approach; it is the content of the exercise that requires a bit of a face-lift.

On the school and home or community side, several inroads have been made. Despite some sociological myths to the contrary, in the main the parents are deeply concerned and the teachers highly skilled and dedicated. If anything is lacking, it is lines of communion between two pools of eager potential. We have tried to build on the existing good relationships, the aim being to help parents understand their children's education so that they can lend support and establish a more balanced home-school atmosphere for the children. We have tried this indirectly in several ways. We have arranged the publication of school prospectuses, child-centred magazines and teacher-centred newsletters, the point here being to ensure professional presentations to compete with the dazzling communications media confronting the parent today. We have had exhibitions of schoolwork in shops, doctors' surgeries and pubs, in fact any natural meeting point of school and community. This led us to organise a large exhibition in the huge department store in the neighbourhood complete with 'live' demonstrations, an education shop and free leaflets on many educational topics. 10,000 visitors in eleven days proved yet again that education is a saleable commodity if one is prepared and equipped for the necessary salesmanship. Site improvement by the children — gardens from derelict parts of playground, huge wall murals in playgrounds — have also been successful in attracting community attention. They also provide an interesting example of dual usage, a combine of communal curriculum and communal outgoing, and they remind one that a fundamental way of recruiting parental interest is by making the curriculum more understandable. Parents, especially those who weren't too hot at school themselves, find some of the modern mumbo-jumbo incomprehensible.

Eventually, however, the direct link is essential, with parents on the 'shop floor' of education, actually observing the educational process, the better to understand it. Teachers need have no fears in that the parent is in a learning rather than a teaching role, with no megalomanic intentions of taking over the school. Our most successful endeavours have been in parental 'at homes', where a class of children invite in their parents for a social-cum-educative session. This can either be a regular visit to normal activities or else a welcome to special functions based, as in one school, on the frequently recurring 'festivals' like Hallow'een, Guy Fawkes Day, Pancake Tuesday and what have you. From this valuable platform (sometimes we have had every child represented) we might hope to work up, say, a parent-child music project, with the parent carried through the process with the child, so that, by sharing the same experience, the mother or father might find even deeper insights than by observation alone.

One could go on and on, talking about our industrial contacts (another fallacy of the community school is that it means the homes around the school; the economy is most important part of the community from everyone's angle) our adult education experimentation, our federation of pre-school playgroups, our 'Playmobile', a converted double-decker bus used for mobile pre-school provision, and a dozen other items. But, at least, all of them lead to the establishment of the community school in educational priority areas.

I believe the community school to be absolutely essential everywhere. In the E.P.A.'s it could be a question of life or death.

Who's Who?

DR. ERIC MIDWINTER

The main part of Dr Midwinter's career has been in teacher-education, and prior to becoming Director of the Liverpool Educational Priority Area Project, he was Deputy Principal of a Liverpool College of Education. Author of **Victorian Social Reform, Social Administration in Lancashire 1830-1860,** and **Nineteenth Century Education** as well as a number of articles on social, historical and educational matters, he is well-versed in the social and economic development of Merseyside and considers this a major element in any consideration of the problem. Married, with two children, and in his late thirties, Dr Midwinter finds his present post, with its amalgam of independence, scope and breadth of action, the most satisfying, so far, of his career.

VICTOR G. JAMES

Chairman of Weald of Sussex Writers', freelance Journalist and Critic, BBC Radio short story writer and former feature writer for Canadian National publication ('Torch') and for local English (Sussex) papers.

Arribismo*

James P. Dixon
President of Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio

Arribismo is adapted from a paper presented to the American Academy of Pediatrics, October 1969. It appeared in **Antioch Notes,** January 1970.

For the past ten years at Antioch College I have been able to see something of the interactions of young people with educators and thus to form a very tentative analysis of the sources of adolescent unrest.

Affluent and liberal middle-class young people, our students have better than average intellectual ability and high esthetic sensitivity, characteristics associated with a high tolerance of ambiguity. They are not very vocationally oriented. They are young secular humanists. The adults with whom they interact also have strong humanistic concerns. Antioch teachers and administrators see themselves as bearing a historic responsibility to provide systematic means of undergraduate education. The whole group — students, faculty, and administrators — function as a kind of community, with strong sanctions for participation in a wide range of decisions from establishing criteria for selecting students and faculty to the educational strategy and the political policies of the College.

Over the years I have noticed the evolution of three distinct kinds of restless student behavior. The first might be translated into a statement: 'I am here'. The second might be characterized as a demand: 'Join my ideology'. The third might be a request: 'Help me develop a new corporate structure'.

An early experience with 'I am here' behaviour came when we had just begun to discuss modifying parietal rules — rules about the way in which men and women live together. I came in one morning at a reasonable hour — say nine o'clock — and saw a girl and a boy in a sleeping bag on the campus in full view of the morning traffic. The event created considerable disturbance. When I talked with the two students, it seemed clear to me they were saying that, despite parietal rules, they were behaving with existing community mores. This they wanted acknowledged, not because they were organizing an assault on parietal rules, but for very personal reasons.

Similar behavior manifested itself in the organization of semi-public nude swimming parties, and, when drugs first appeared, in the aggressive public use of pot. I remember a couple of students who came to see me. They were quite stoned. They came to ask me, they said, what I would do if students did come and tell me they were stoned.

Later, students called attention to their pres-

*An 'unbridled desire to rise'—term used in Peru.

ence by injecting an unscheduled guerrilla theatre performance into a board of trustees meeting.

'Join My Ideology'

Examples of ideological behavior include a rather massive attack on a local barber over the issue of cutting Negroes' hair. This action was in the framework of the liberal ideology and was supported by a substantial number of community members, who were clear enough on issues of equal opportunity, although many were disturbed by elements of violence that were present.

Another example would be behavior toward Selective Service, the Vietnam war, and the military-industrial complex. Students pressed very hard for Antioch to take an official position against all three. Success in capturing support from the community for these was less than for civil rights. (There was a lurking fear, I think, that to take a college position on the war might make membership in the Antioch community impossible for persons holding a view contrary to that of the majority.)

The request to collaborate in creating new corporate structures seems to be less based upon the crisis of individual needs, to require a less pure ideological position, and to contain elements of relatedness and continuity. Much of this behavior has been against the College itself.

Students and faculty members, for example, took part in changing a freshman program toward a freer, more open and individualized system. They also collaborated in inventing field centers — organized around programs away from the campus that focussed teaching and learning on special problems. Substructures were developed within the campus community — an inner college, which concentrated on means for affective education; a radical studies institute, with attention to radical theory and radical action; and Unity House, which was concerned with the special problem of non-white, non-middle-class young people.

Ventures like these require a great deal of engagement from the entire community. They often require changes in the behavior of participants. They are essentially radical. (By 'community,' I do not mean a political community, but the set of communal relationships that allows people to sustain their individualism at the same time that they work on objectives they hold in common.)

Growing Collaboration

These restless behaviors have moved from almost sole concentration on the needs of the individual to include concern for the invention of new organizational structures. And this progression seems to have increased the possibility for collaborative support of all these behaviors from within the student peer group and from college faculty and staff members.

'I am here' behavior was first seen as needing clinical assistance. Slowly the community has come to find some non-clinical techniques that are useful for developing human sensitivity, such as various forms of group-dynamics activity.

The Antioch community has tried to deal with ideological questions in a fashion that enriches its ideological pluralism. The effect has been a steady reduction of negative sanctions against particular political and social behavior.

The most productive collaboration, I think, has been in developing new corporate structures. This has meant a new definition of roles — especially for faculty members and administrators — and makes allocating resources difficult. And it occurs in radical times, which we can see reflected at large in the repression of students, the repression of political deviance, and the repression of minority groups.

In our colleges, we have cultivated individualism, often purely vocational, and not allowed youth to be distracted by having to invent new social forms or new corporate devices for human living. In that sense, it seems to me, most of our youth are disadvantaged — as indeed is much of middle- and lower-class America. Young people now sense this dis-

advantage and are working on new structures.

But to achieve consequential social collaboration, we must go beyond seeing youth just as individuals. Probably we must first know 'they are here.' Then we can struggle to articulate their anxious idealism with our own feelings. But even this is apparently not enough. If new corporate forms are needed to serve the emerging postindustrial society, I can think of no better place to take initiative on them than in our institutions of higher education. Failure to do this is not only a denial of youth. It may also deny the larger community the pragmatic outcomes of the use of academic, social, and political freedom.

In the end new structures may well be inevitable because youth themselves, I sense, are increasingly taking charge of building the new structures. While we are busy describing their unrest, they are already beyond us into a new sociology.

BOOK REVIEWS

Victor G. James

What can I say that has not already been said, about such poets as Dylan Thomas, T. S. Eliot and the great (I use the word 'great' in its truest sense) Robert Graves? But any Anthology of poems is difficult to review, so I can only write how I feel about John Fairfax's Contemporary Anthology of poems entitled: 'Listen to This'.

Like most books it contains work that I didn't like, but then there was more that I DID enjoy and I think you will too.

Poems written around a variety of subjects such as Persons, Places, People, Love Songs, etc. including 'Perception' (an interesting venture into the realms of imagination I thought), much verbal magic and distillation of genius are written by such as John Betjeman, Jon Silkin, Dylan Thomas, T. S. Eliot, W. Auden, Alan Brownjohn and the man that some brand as 'coward', others as 'heroe', but most must surely agree is just plain 'Master' in his particular sphere . . . Robert Graves, whose poems in this book, 'The Oldest Soldier' mostly, I must confess made this book a 'must' for me.

Edith Sitwell writes 'Aubade' — a poem you either like or hate, it is impossible to list all the work to be found in 'Listen to This', but apart from the already mentioned poet's work, there are some exciting new works and also some I can only class as 'verbal diarrhoea!' — (a personal opinion). But I think that the majority will enjoy the book and that John Fairfax is to be congratulated on this interesting and versatile Anthology.

Education in the 1970's and 1980's

Edited W. J. Fenley
The Department of Education, University of Sydney
N.S.W. 2006
One dollar, fifty cents.

It was an excellent idea — to attempt to communicate, through a series of public lectures and discussions, the thinking of a University Department of Education **as a whole,** and so to open the educational debate to a wider audience. Did it come off? Extremely well; and this book is a record of the greater part of the proceedings. Through its pages we are invited to join in too.

It is a rewarding experience; with people like Dr R. C. Petersen and Professor W. F. Connell leading off, and an able team giving support, it could hardly be otherwise. Today educators are either asleep or involved in an educational revolution. This book is about the revolution: the impact of contemporary concepts of child development, curriculum development, new approaches to evaluation and examinations, the contributions of teaching machines, school organization, the influence of education on societal change, and many other themes that are pressing for dynamic solutions in place of the mechanistic pseudo-solutions characteristic of much education in the past and now indubitably, even though obstinately, on their way out.

The symposium is refreshingly open and practical, avoiding the chief risk of this kind of document — getting lost in its own theories. Professor G. Howie, for example, when considering the proper balance between group and individual study, does not just talk **about** the issues but offers a scheme in detail with which any school that had a mind to do so could experiment. Elsewhere in the book hints towards action are plentiful.

The overall pattern of the book is the basic lectures, divided into three sections: 'Considerations of Education Theory', 'Directions and Trends in Educational Practice', and 'Beyond the School: Education and the Adult'. The first two sections are followed by chapters reporting discussion, including students' comments. Hence, the book makes an admirable primer for further discussion. The material evokes the response of 'Yes' rather than 'Yes, but . . . '. But the temptation to question and explore further is built into the book, thereby rather nicely demonstrating in practice what the book is about — educating people to respond, to think and to participate.

Anyone who would like to provide himself at one go with an outline of the Australian educational climate, and an interesting refresher course on modern educational thinking, plus a provocation to think, has it all provided for him here in an eminently readable form. Ostensibly the book is about one University Department coming out into the open forum of social interaction to discuss education in one country; in fact it speaks to the educational condition of the whole technological world.

James Hemming

Streaming in the Primary School

Joan C. Barker Lunn
N.F.E.R., 1970

Every primary teacher with decided views on streaming should read, if not the whole of this book, then at least the Introduction which makes it clear that the sum of all previous research on Streaming has been entirely inconclusive, with similar studies yielding totally incompatible results. Joan Barker Lunn, having identified the serious shortcomings shared by previous studies, sets

out to avoid these in the rather optimistic hope, one feels, of achieving copper-bottomed conclusiveness. But, despite its greater rigour and its taking into account such obviously relevant factors as teachers' attitudes and methods of working — which others have ignored — this study achieves no overall firm conclusions. There are minor victories for both sides in the streaming debate, but at the end of the day, the issue is still in doubt.

The main body of research comprised a cross-sectional study, carried out in 1964, of pupils in all four years of junior school, and a longitudinal one, following 5,500 pupils who were 7+ in 1964, through their entire junior school course until 1967, together with a more limited follow-up for three years of pupils who were 8+ in 1964.

A preliminary survey sought to identify matched pairs of streamed and unstreamed schools, and there was an intensive study of three schools of each type in order to observe work in progress over a long period, to obtain reliable information on the opinions and attitudes of teachers, and to look at the progress of individual children.

The criteria used for assessing the effects of streaming and non-streaming were pupil attainments and, although attempts were made in the longitudinal study to measure less conventional objectives of Primary Education (number concepts, creative writing, divergent thinking), many teachers will probably feel that the testing still has a bias towards the type of attainment most favoured by the supporters of streaming. Children are often dealt with in three ability groups, based on the results of reading tests (which are assumed to be the least biased in favour of the objectives of one or other regime). The ease with which the researchers assume the validity of this criterion is in contrast with their scrupulous methods of procedure elsewhere.

It is the battery of tests — together with the interests and attitudes of children and teachers — which yields the aforementioned minor victories and some surprises.

Creative ability is not markedly higher in non-streamed schools — surprising that the 'restrictive' regimes achieve as much as the 'permissive'. On the other hand, perhaps no surprise — who would honestly think that a test for creativeness could be anything but horribly crude?

Victory for the non-streamers: their children, especially those of above average ability, score more in the tests for divergent thinking. But one's confidence in the result is shaken when one is told that, in these tests, 'A response was considered irrelevant if it bore no relation to the situation presented in the question.' — That must have successfully knocked out every genius whose thinking was more divergent than the tester's for a start!

Victory for the streamers — all those broadening, liberalizing efforts of the non-streamers are to no avail; children's interests remain substantially the same out of school or in it, however they are taught.

Indeed, school is irrelevant; sex holds sway: all the boys, except very few, rave about football and the girls read adventure stories and watch television. Yet I must not obscure the truth with a sweeping statement: boys of all abilities in non-streamed schools like reading newspapers, and girls of above average ability in streamed schools enjoy a good encyclopedia!

The cherished belief that children of all abilities are better adjusted both personally and socially in an unstreamed environment receives some support in the study, but even here there is an anomoly: children of below average ability, especially boys, had a better 'self-image' (didn't feel looked down on) in streamed schools. In this regard, as in others, the least satisfactory context was that provided by a teacher who believes in streaming, working in an unstreamed school.

Children's attitudes seemed influenced by various factors. Pupils in unstreamed schools placed a lower premium on 'doing well', but, the significance of that, of course, depends on what is meant by 'doing well'. Attitudes towards school and interest in work seem, on the whole, to be sexually determined. However, individual ability also is a factor which correlates with conformity. Bright girls conformed most, were most interested in school, and thought it a 'lovely place'. Below average boys didn't, weren't and didn't again.

Teachers' attitudes present an interesting problem for statistical analysis. So many of the staff (21%) in unstreamed schools seemed to hold opinions typical of pro-streaming teachers, that teachers in such schools were divided into two types: those just described who could be grouped with most of the teachers in streamed schools, labelled Type 2, and the committed anti-streamers (Type 1). Although Type 2 teachers in unstreamed schools were often looked at separately, it is likely that, in some instances, they skewed the results. Nevertheless, even after allowing for their influence, the patterns of teaching methods used in the two types of schools are remarkably similar. Class teaching and ability grouping within the class are more widely used by anti-streamers than I would have anticipated; on average 51% of their English teaching, 55% of Maths, 44% of Reading, and almost all the teaching in other subjects mentioned (History, Geography, R.E.) is done in this way. Individual tuition is fairly common, but mixed ability groups are still ridiculously rare; on average 5% for English, 7% for Maths and 5% for Reading. The methods used do not differ staggeringly from one type of school to another; indeed the most significant thing might well be taken to be a change in attitude and method with age of child; class teaching and ability groups are more widely used by all for younger children, and individual work for the more senior.

Let me finish with a warning and a prediction. First the warning. Influence of school organisation on pupil progress was measured; 2 samples were taken; in sample A, pupils in non-streamed schools made better progress than those in streamed schools; in sample B, the reverse was true. Two resoundingly different results — a matter, the report concludes quite reasonably, of sample differences. Many of the other differences found were so slight as to be entirely insignificant, or just significant at a low level of confidence; very few were highly significant. Sample differences, let alone the rationale of much of the psychological testing, loom very large in my mind.

The prediction — That the book will not be very widely read because too many people hold very entrenched beliefs about streaming and each page of this book will tell them that they should not .

Rosalind Goodyear

Fifteen Plus

Rosamunde Blackler
London. Allen and Unwin. 28/- (£1.40)

The Avondale Project — a stimulus and model for much advisory work with adolescents — was set up to help 'ordinary' fifteen-year-old school leavers over the critical years covering the end of school and the beginning of working life. **Fifteen Plus** is an account of this pioneer venture by the person who was at the practical heart of it and is still deeply involved in advisory work with young people.

In effect the book is a documentary about life in one of London's twilight areas: the feckless homes, the defeated parents, the struggles on the part of young people to establish some kind of identity over against a society whose demands they find it hard to meet, the difficulties at school, the wandering from job to job, the search for mates, the boundless patience needed on the part of anyone who enters this arena with the purpose of offering help and support.

For many young people the break away from formless drifting to a rewarding pattern of life is tantalisingly near if only the right chances come along and are made use of. Support in the bad times and at the turning points is vital for the future of these young people, and they can be helped only by those they have learned to trust. Hence the value of discussions with an adult friend while the girls — the book is mostly about girls — are still at school. This gives a basis for support during the tumultuous, and often disastrous, months that follow leaving school, when young people are assured enough to throw off all authority, but not assured enough to stand on their own feet, months of lostness and struggle, and often of pathetic failure.

This humane book, both from its content and the techniques of bridging the gap it describes, is an ideal source of enrichment for courses in education, particularly for those involved in training school counsellors and in preparing teachers to undertake the responsibilities of headship. It is a source of insight and encouragement about that most difficult of all human beings — the difficult adolescent. In addition, it is attractively written and full of human interest.

James Hemming

Living Religion Series

Judaism (Myer Domnitz), Islam (Riadh El Droubie), Buddhism (Trevor Ling), Protestant Christian Churches (Marcus Ward)
Ward Lock Educational: 6s. non net

This series represents a new departure in religious studies. The traditional CSR textbook was aimed at the academic fifth former and comprised potted accounts of different religions arranged in chronological (and supposedly in evolutionary) sequence. The format was dull, the contents concerned solely with such intellectual matters as the origin, history and tenets of each religion.

This new series is good to look at — slender paperbacks (the books range from 30 to 63 pages) with a coloured photograph as cover. The pages are broken up by line drawings and photographs. Each author is a practising member of the religion he describes. The books are simply written and go beyond information about origins and doctrine to describe the practices and way of life that have developed from these. Thus the book on Islam gives photographs and detailed description of Muslim prayers. Secondary school pupils and top juniors will find them very useful. They open up the largely overlooked possibility that attention might be given to the religious as well as the geographical, political and social aspects of countries that children learn about. It is absurd to ignore this factor on the specious pretext that children have only forty minutes a week (perhaps not that) for religious education and that the geography teacher cannot mention religion.

Besides the advantages already mentioned the series gains authenticity from the personal involvement of the authors in the religions they describe. But there are corresponding weaknesses. No hint of criticism mars their pages. We must look elsewhere for discussion of the narrowing effects of Judaism, the fissiparous tendencies of Christianity, the subjugation of women in Islam and Buddhism's general lack of dynamism. They tend to be simplistic: 'The angel took (Mohammed) firmly in his arms and repeated three times, "Read!" ' All are a bit stodgy — understandably in view of their length and purpose — and so give little encouragement to the reader. There are inevitable omissions and skewed emphases: Reform and Liberal Judaism are very briefly dismissed and the Puritans said to have disliked music while Mr Ling says surprisingly little about **karma**.

These blemishes in no way detract from the overall impression that the series will prove invaluable in schools. The chief barrier to their use will not be the handful of intransingent extremists whose emotional commitment to a Christian or an anti-God position may impel them to burn rather than buy such books. A more serious barrier is the widespread failure to take religious education seriously and the refusal of many head teachers to make adequate provision of time or money for even the most 'progressive' religious education.

Peter Cousins

The Years Before School Guiding Pre-School Children

Todd, Vivian Edmiston and Heffernan, Helen.
2nd edition; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1970.
pp. 671. 8.00 dollars

The Years Before School is a readable professional book designed for lay persons planning, evaluating, or developing early childhood programs, teachers, parents, and other key persons in the field of education such as librarians, social workers, guidance personnel, and supervisors.

The three sections, 'Groups for American Pre-school Children', 'The Curriculum for the Group', and 'Participation in the Pre-school Group' are based on the philosophy, psychology and research of Bakwin, Bloom, Gesell and Ilg, Piaget, and Prescott. All research is documented and exemplified by specific practices for teaching children effectively. Experiences, activities, and research for advantaged and disadvantaged children within the different cultures of the United States are woven into the text. Most examples are actual classroom observations recorded as the events happened.

School personnel starting new programs, personnel responsible for local programs, or a teacher establishing her own room will find chapter IV, 'Getting the School Ready' a useful guide for purchasing equipment, allotting space and providing other facilities needed for a good pre-school program. Teachers, parents and other lay persons may use this chapter as a model for evaluating the physical facilities of existing programs.

The first five chapters and the last three chapters are concerned with the sociological setting and psychological basis conclude with annotated lists of current professional books and pamphlets pertinent resources for additional information. Ten chapters are devoted to the seven instructional areas and have annotated lists of books which are relevant examples of literature for young children. These lists provide a valuable source for teachers and parents in selecting books for classrooms and as gifts for children.

All of the adroitness of the first edition is retained and new research, materials, ideas, and programs are integrated into the text of the second edition. This is a 'must' book for those interested in young children!

Reviewed by Betty L. Broman, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee, U.S.A.

Editorial

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New Zealand: A. Grey
United States: Margaret Rasmussen

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Yew Tree Cottage, Roundabouts,
Five Ashes, Mayfield, Sussex.
Tel. Hadlow Down 389.

'I sing of times' trans-shifting; and I write
How roses first came red and lilies white.'
Robert Herrick

We are fortunate to print in this issue some of the experimental material which came through our letter inviting local authorities to tell us what they were doing in the broad field of primary education. We are pleased to have such a fascinating picture of happenings in Manchester; the articles show structured experiment which leaves freedom for growth. Such phrases as 'parents from a complete social and intellectual range are demanding nursery places for their children'; 'preschool playgroup'; 'it is possible for team teaching and class teaching to progress side by side within the same school'; there is evidence of a growing need for sophisticated systems of communication'; 'a significant development in team teaching can be seen where the school caters for children at the infant and junior stages in one unit', open the window on a contemporary ferment of new thought.

Manchester speaks today and these snatches from conversation communicate some of the life and development in primary education in the city, and in doing so reflect the immense opportunities for the next decades. A further article describes modern methods with what is a traditional problem in Manchester, the 'presence of immigrant groups,' and reminds us of the value of 'making a valuable contribution towards the integration of a multi-racial society'.

From Banff comes a fascinating study of transition from the primary to the secondary stage in education, where Banff Academy Transition department 'is striving earnestly and sincerely to close the gap between the two educational stages'.

From Liverpool has come an account of the 'community school' in an educational priority area and this concept offers ideas for parent-teacher organisation on a more involved scale as well as showing how education is one, and further education of a non-vocational and informal type connects with the primary school and is a part of community. I gather that 'community' in London has become a dirty word, because it has been used to describe the social problems of immigrants and problem families. There is, in the modern world, no escape from the world community. Any section of the people that gets left, affects the health of the whole. People must become involved or the mental health services become over-worked, and those who are not ill suffer in what Dr Midwinter calls 'the grey anonimity that even a large town seems unable to withstand.' The series of 'mini-projects' being tried in Liverpool in seven associated schools should be watched by all those who see in the living detail and the inter-relationships the wholeness of education, the one in the many.

Members are reminded of the York Conference when 'Weaving Education into the Social Fabric' will be the theme and two working parties will approach the theme from two angles. 1) The participating community, 2) Personal education in the new society. The conference runs from 28th July to Monday 3rd August. Further details from Raymond King, ENEF office, 2 Wilton Grove, New Malden, Surrey.

The Bullring

A. J. Grainger
Pergamon Press 1970 pp 158. Price 20/-

This is a fascinating account of an 'experiment in moral education' (Mr Grainger's sub-title) carried out over a period of two years with 13-14 year old Leicestershire schoolchildren of somewhat above average ability. 'The Bullring' is the children's own name for a series of free discussion groups usually occupying a double period a week. But in this context, 'free discussion group' means something very different from the usual discussion group in which the class starts, maybe, with the subject of racial prejudice, with polite points made for and against, and works gradually up to a daring discussion on sex towards the end of the year, with Sir firmly in the chair throughout, summing up at the end of each meeting in a manner so fair, objective, unprejudiced, impartial and Olympian as to make anyone with strong views on the subject want to kick him.

In the Bullring, on the other hand, 'you can say what you like and just about do what you like' (a 13 year-old girl). The participants sit in a circle and the real aim of the proceeding is not to discover what others in the class think about foxhunting, but to study their own and each other's behaviour — to learn by experience how people interact. The teacher is not a chairman, not a controller, but simply an interpreter of the group's behaviour. Sometimes a whole meeting is wasted (wasted?) by the children flicking paper pellets at each other, sometimes a 'proper' discussion gets going, but in either case the children are discovering valuable things about their own nature and about the nature of social contact and social conflict. The circle is experienced at various times as home, prison, and castle wall.

'The declared aim of the Bullring', says Mr Grainger, 'is that the children should study their own behaviour as it occurs'. Hence **what** is discussed is really irrelevant. Indeed, the apparent subject may be only a disguise for the questions of social tension that are really being discussed, as when a discussion ostensibly on the morality of bullfighting serves to disguise a probing of the tensions of the 'free discussion' method itself. It is the teacher's job to reveal what lies beneath the disguise (though some readers may feel, as did one child, that 'he (Mr Grainger) always interprets everything we say psychologically, and not many ——— agree with him').

How successful is the method? Mr Grainger quotes verdicts from the participants. One girl writes 'At first I thought it was a waste of time, just sitting in a circle chucking pieces of chalk about, but now I enjoy the discussions . . . They help you to learn about yourself and other people'. On the other hand, a boy says 'I have not personally learnt anything at all about new subjects . . . teachers, the class, groups in the class, or anything new about myself'. On the whole, most children seem to have been helped by the Bullring, and nearly all were sorry when it came to an end. As to its ultimate value, I cannot do better than quote Mr Grainger's own paradox, the closing sentence of the book, 'the Bullring is a failure, but it ought to continue'.

David Burnard.

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Application Forms from: General Secretary, WEF 55 Upper Stone Street, Tunbridge Wells, Kent. (Telephone: T. Wells 21770).

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WORLD STUDIES BULLETIN

NUMBER 16 SEPTEMBER 1970

advisors to the Bulletin: **Lord Boyle of Handsworth, H. L. Elvin, A. A. Evans, Professor G. L. Goodwin, Sir Ronald Gould, Terence Lawson**

EDITORIAL

The importance of World Studies was vividly illustrated by a recent B.B.C. 1 Television programme, 'Be Fruitful and Multiply'. In a Times review of it (29th July 1970) Henry Raynor wrote:—

'Life becomes more cramped, more inhibited, more isolated in unbearable crowds and more neurotic until men learn to limit the population or until they organize a war catclysmic enough to restore the balance. Science and technology have no answer; the best we can do, if the developed nations do not use up all that is left of some necessary materials, is to stay where we are. To preserve what one contributor, considering the growth of the population of Brazil, called 'the present level of misery', the underdeveloped countries need to double their resources every 25 or 30 years. The developed countries, however, do more harm; they both consume more and increase their population.

Visions of the future used to be inspired by a Wellsian optimism; we would have a very bad time, then the golden age would dawn. Our prophets can see nothing to comfort us. Apparently we just aren't intelligent enough to escape from the consequences of progress."

In the light of this depressing prospect it is heartening to note the splendid initiative of 3WI (Third World First, Britwell Salome, Nr. Watlington, Oxon Tel. Watlington 753). This ginger group has already involved more than 15,000 students in a campaign to promote this cause. The article which constitutes our current THEME provides a disturbing but challenging commentary on this predicament of the species.

September 1970

1 UNIVERSITIES & COLLEGES

A. University of Bristol Department of Extra-Mural Studies.

At a Conference 1st May 1970 of lecturing staff from a number of British Extra-Mural Depts. of Universities the following decisions were made:—

1. To produce a Calendar of University Extra-mural staff working in the field of International Relations/World Affairs and to revise it every year or so.

2. To arrange a second conference, restricted to fulltime staff of Extra-mural Departments, to discuss the same kind of problems immediately after the Spring Holiday 1970.

3. To arrange a 'Study-Course' under the organisation of Mr Maylor of London University for May 1971, open to all Adult Education tutors on 'Conflict Studies'.

In conjunction with The European Association of Teachers (U.K. Section) the Bristol Extra-mural Dept. has arranged a Week-end Course, October 30th to November 1st, 1970 on

'European Studies in the Seventies'.

Application to Mr H. F. G. Tucker, Bristol University Extra-mural Dept., 20A Berkeley Square, Bristol, BS8 IHR.

B. Cambridgeshire College of Arts and Technology,
Collier Rd., Cambridge CBI 2AJ Tel. 63271.
24 sessions on Wednesday evenings from 6 to 8 at the Cambridge Institute of Education, starting 30th September 1970 on

The Contemporary World

(Mr H. Browne M.A., Head of the Faculty of Arts and Languages and other members of the Faculty).

Programme

Autumn Term
Session 1 De-colonialisation and the emergence of the Third World.
Session 2 Ex-imperial powers: Britain's and France's changed position in the world.
Session 3 A new imperial power: American foreign policy, its aims and nature.
Session 4 American society since 1945: civil rights, racialism, the Great Society, protest movements.
Session 5 The new Europe: recovery and the Common Market.
Session 6 African independence.
Session 7 Southern Africa.
Session 8/9 Latin America.
Session 10 Contemporary Revolutions: Russia.

Spring Term
Session 11 Contemporary Revolutions: China.
Session 12 Contemporary Revolutions: Cuba.
Session 13 Areas of Contemporary Conflict: Russia and China.
Session 14 Areas of Contemporary Conflict: Israel and the Arab States.
Session 15 Areas of Contemporary Conflict: West and East Germany.
Session 16 The recovery of Japan.
Session 17 Race and racism.
Sessions 18/20 The group will divide into four separate tutorials to examine more closely the problems of four of the following:
a) Africa (J.A.P./T.R.S.)
b) China (M.M.)
c) Latin America (P.H.).
d) Race and Racism (P.B.)

It would be possible to offer as an alternative, if required:—
America (R.M.) Middle East (H.B.)

Summer Term
Session 21 As sessions 18/20.
Session 22 Food and population.
Session 23 The United Nations and peace-keeping machinery.
Session 24 Assessment.

Balls Park College of Education

A report on the 'Third World' element in a Study of Contemporary Society, Course II, at Balls Park College of Education, Hertford.

The 'Third World' is part of the Study of Contemporary Society undertaken by all three-year students of this college in preparation for the Cambridge Institute of Education Teacher's Certificate. Contemporary Studies, including Course I in the first year, accounts for 11% of the students' total study time and replaces the more conventional Second or Subsidiary Main Study.

The purpose of the course under review is to encourage informed opinion on the natural and human difficulties facing governments and peoples in the countries of the Third World, and to examine the richness of culture, religion, history, etc., which the developing nations of Africa and Asia (and to a lesser extent Latin America) can contribute to the world: The study of Latin America has been curtailed owing to shortage of time. This ambitious objective has to be achieved in a 7 hours per week time allocation (2 hours lectures, 5 hours private study) over a period of 1½ terms finishing at Christmas in the students' final year. The course was initiated in 1969 and is currently having its second run-through in a form only slightly modified from the original. The 'Third World' is one of three options, of which the others are "Attitudes and Beliefs" and "Arts and Social Values'.

84 students from a total of 199 chose the 'Third World' option. They are divided into six seminar/discussion groups under the

direction of a member of staff. Of the six group leaders two are from the Geography department and one each from the Education, History, Religious Studies and Physical Education departments. The course combines a depth study of a topic chosen by the student for presentation to the seminar group, with a broad survey of the Third World through lectures, discussions, films and reading. The seminar 'paper' is the really important piece of individual work and its quality virtually determines the success of the course, at least as far as the particular student is concerned.

The following programme is the one planned for the period 12th June 1970 — 4th December 1970. Sessions from 11.15 a.m. — 1.05 p.m. represent the lecture element of the time allowance.

Week 1. Introductory lecture summarising the basic problems of the Third World — environmental, social, educational, economic, political — and our reactions to and responsibilities for these problems.

Week 2. Group discussions of issues raised in the introductory lecture and in 'Rich World/Poor World' ed. by James Lambe (Arrow).
(Students are also encouraged to read 'Problems of the World Economy' by Richard Bailey (Pelican).

Week 3. Films: 'Between Two Worlds' — the cultural dilemma of an educated Masai.
'One Man's Hunger' — the struggles of a Bengali farmer for economic survial.

Week 4. Group discussions of previous week's films. (Many students praised the impact of 'One Man's Hunger').
Time also allowed for individual consultation with seminar leaders on choice of topics and timing of papers for the Autumn Term.

During the first half term students are provided with a extensive reading list, mainly of suitable paperbacks, designed to give not only background reading to the first part of the programme, but also ideas for seminar topics in preparation for the coming term. Written work required is an essay on one of the following:

1. What order of priorities would seem to be appropriate for an African or Asian government?

2. Is it right for us to give aid to developing countries?

The purpose of the first four sessions is to provide a very basic framework of information and opinion on the nature of the problems of developing countries. No previous knowledge is assumed, although students of Geography and History are at an obvious advantage.

In the second term, of 11 sessions, the presentation of depth studies begins, together with a selection of visiting speakers who provide stimulating and expert knowledge of a range of subjects from Africa and Asia. The four named speakers lectured in 1969 and agreed to do so again in 1970.

Week 5. Lecture: Mr Robin Hallett, Research Fellow at the Institute of Commonwealth Affairs, University of Oxford.
'Attitudes to Africa' — conventional views of Africa and the Africans contrasted with reality.

Week 6. Seminar Papers.

Week 7. Lecture: Mr H. L. Elvin, Director of the London Institute of Education.
'Education in India' — a comprehensive survey of the social and economic hindrances to the development of Indian education.

Week 8. Lecture: Mr John Hatch, Commonwealth Correspondent of the 'New Statesman'.

'Political Problems in the Third World' — concentrating mainly on Africa Mr Hatch reviews topical political issues.

Week 9. Seminar Papers.

Half Term.

Week 10. Seminar Papers.

Week 11. Lecture: Mr Cosmo Pieterse, South African Poet.
'African Literature' — a fascinating account of the rapid growth of modern African writing.

Week 12. Seminar Papers.

Week 13. Film and lecture.
'The War in Viet Nam'.
A short film on the war followed by a talk from a representative of North Viet Nam.
(In the first year of the course the film 'The Vicious Spiral' was shown at this point. This subject matter is covered in 'One Man's Hunger' so the above substitution has been made.)

Week 14. Seminar Papers.

Week 15. Final Session.
The nature of this session depends on the nature of the material available at the time. Originally it was intended to summarise the work done by each seminar group, but as the subject-matter is so diverse this was found to be unsatisfactory. In the first year of the course the issues raised so motivated the students to the desperate plight of humanity in the Third World that one group organised a bread and cheese lunch in which the entire college participated, both staff and students, and which raised more than £110 which has been sent to specific overseas projects in which people known to members of the college are involved.

The lectures given in the first year were invaluable and greatly contributed to the success of the course. Yet the value for individual students lay in the quality of work presented in the seminar papers. Not least was the choice of topic. In most groups a rich variety of subjects was presented, thus stimulating interest and providing the breadth element so vital in a contemporary studies course. Students were encouraged to consider in their papers the second course objective, namely the quality of life and culture enjoyed by the developing nations, recognising national self-respect and individual personality. The following is a selection of topics chosen.

Tribal art in Africa.
Racial problems in Brazil.
Jomo Kenyatta's Kenya.
Mao Tse-Tung.
Tribal religions in Africa.
The population explosion.
Cultural clashes in India.
Two African novelists.
The effect of independence on Rhodesia.

Some of the subjects were found to be too diffuse or general, and more detailed advice was given to students on the second time round, as a result of which more specific subjects were chosen, as follows.

Religious themes in Indian poetry.
The position of Asians in E. Africa.
Foreign intervention in Viet Nam.
The effects of Hinduism on development in India.
The control of leprosy.
Economic contrasts in Kuwait.
The work of one African writer.
Portugueses colonial policy in Africa.

It is intended that papers be limited to 30 minutes, that encouragement be given to the use of audio-visual aids, and that time be allowed for discussion. Throughout the second term students are expected to supplement lectures and papers with additional reading chosen from the list.

Evaluation
The 1969 programme was intended as an experiment, but the apparent success of the course was such that only minor modifica-

tions were made for 1970. The word 'apparent' is used here because no real attempt was made at an objective evaluation. Subjectively, all students who were prepared to discuss the course with lectures and external examiners spoke enthusiastically of its interest and relevance. One student even placed it among the most valuable sections of the college curriculum. It is hoped this year to initiate a more objective survey of students' attitudes to the course. Staff members involved have been encouraged by the enthusiasm of students and by the high standard of work presented in seminar meetings. We feel the objectives of wider horizons and more intelligent and informed appreciation of problems on a global scale are valid, that they can be achieved through the sort of means described in this article, and that teachers with attitudes that are less insular and parochial will be of greater service to the children they teach and to the community.

Colin Harris.

II. SCHOOLS

A Unit on World Order

Kin Mason
Mount Elizabeth Secondary School,
Kitimat, B.C.

Although most of us give lip service to some kind of world order, the conversation usually rambles and dies for lack of background and exchange of practical solutions.

Teachers and students frequently discuss 'current events' or 'world affairs'. Most students respond with interest to these discussions, but eventually the events blend into a mosaic of unrelated facts. Interest wanes and often disappears.

The teacher's problem, then, is to sustain interest in the class, and work toward solutions to some of the worlds' problems.

But how?
How can the sense of urgency be conveyed?
What is important?

World peace is important. Economic well being and equal protection of the laws are important. Overpopulation. Production and distribution of food. Health. The depletion of resources. The pollution of our air and water. The list is getting longer.

A teacher equipped with general knowledge is soon overwhelmed.

I am a teacher, but here is one method, namely to involve the student in such a way that he might project a particular problem 20 to 25 years into the future.

What hope for the Arabs and Jews? Policy of Containment, anyone? China — U.S.S.R.? The underdeveloped world? Canada — U.S. relations?

There are several alternative international systems of law and order designed to solve the world's problems. They could each be studied and evaluated. The best one could be selected — that is the one most likely to bring peace, social justice and economic gains to the world community.

How could the world move from its present system to that **desired** state — to that 'preferred' world?

Big question? You bet.
Too big for high school students? Probably.
Yet, the idea appealed to me.

My superintendent and principal had always encouraged the new approach. Why not give it a try?

Why not?

But, where to start? Where would it best fit into the curriculum? I decided that my Grade 10 class was the logical place to begin. We had just finished our study of World War II. We could develop the Post War period and move into up-to-date studies. Four months remained in the school year and the students' background showed a good foundation that could be built upon during the time remaining.

Materials and Methods

1. For the first step we used the **New York Times World Affairs Kit** for our basic materials.

Five groups studied different areas for about six weeks. Towards the end of the period, each group reported to the class. Where possible, they tried to project these problems into the future.

While we learned something about Liberal Socialism, Authoritarian Socialism, and the present state of Capitalism, we also came to realize that these 'isms' meant very little to hundreds of millions of people.

2. A raffle failed to make enough money for an international game with which the class could learn world politics by role playing; so we bought two class sets of booklets from the American Education Publications. They were **20th Century Russia, and Communist China** and were products of the Harvard Social Studies Project.

Two thirds of the class worked with these booklets while the remainder worked with United Nations materials. What, specifically, does the U.N. do to solve some of these problems?

Some of the U.N. publications are excellent. Especially well received were **Ceres** (a bi-monthly from the Food and Agriculture Organization) **UNHCR** (High Commission for Refugees) and the **World Health** magazine. With these the students also used a Canadian publication, the **United Nations,** by Katherine Savage. (Copp Clark Co. of Toronto).

The students learned practical, down-to-earth contributions made through the various agencies.

Locust control in the Middle East; production of high protein algae in Chad; the attempts to change the Guajiro Indians' way of life in South America by converting their spartan nomadic, pastoral existence to one of stabilized agriculture.

Is it possible to curb more of our national outlook and think in terms of the global community?

The students suggested that possibility, that necessity. Were they too idealistic?

They were skeptical of the peace keeping role of the U.N.

3. The National Film Board of Canada sent us a film called 'Life in the Woodlot'. The film shows how nature maintains its balance. To illustrate the process, the film used a wooded section of an Ontario farm.

This film led to a two-period discussion on the consequences of Man's upsetting the balance of nature.

Pollution was the main topic in all of its ramifications. Although we had many materials available with which to explore this problem further, we decided to move on. Time was running out.

4. We purchased some pamphlets from Oxfam of Canada (Toronto) on international development in the underdeveloped world. They covered matters such as agriculture, population, education, literacy, health, economic growth, and how our trade policies negate the aid which flows to these countries.

5. While these ideas were still in our heads, we read the World Law Fund publication, **Let Us Examine Our Attitude Toward Peace.** Lin Piao's thesis — the choking off of the 'cities of the world', by successful revolutions in the underdeveloped countries — was now much more meaningful to us. We also felt that the West had outgrown the 'policy of containment', but we weren't sure what we would do for a substitute policy.

   Definite conclusions? Not very definite.

6. We ended our study with an essay question which turned out to be part of a contest. The best essay, which was judged

by an impartial group, helped decide who would represent our school at the U.N. Association's Annual High School Seminar in Vancouver in September, 1970.

III. ORGANISATIONS

A. I.L.E.A.

Extract from the Education Bulletin of the Inner London Education Authority issued on 12th June 1970

History

No. 48 — World History Lectures for Teachers — At the Stoke d'Abernon and local World History conferences there have been constant requests made by teachers for lectures from historians who are specialists in those areas of the world where their own knowledge tends to be deficient. Mrs H. R. Chetwynd, Staff Inspector for History and Social Sciences has therefore co-operated with Mr E. O'Connor, Organiser of Extramural Studies at the School of Oriental and African Studies in proposing the following course of lecturers which will be held either at the School or the adjacent Institute of Education. The day and time decided on as most suitable by the majority of teachers is Wednesday at 5.30 p.m. The I.L.E.A. closed circuit World History television programmes for children, due to be transmitted in the year 1971-2, will be concerned with Africa, China, Latin America and India, and teachers intending to use this material profitably will find this proposed course of great assistance. The next Stoke d'Abernon conference in May 1971 will take the form of a workshop in which members will use a variety of materials to produce lessons or learning situations based on these four areas of World History.

Nine Lectures in the following order

Autumn Term

30th September: The Story of Nigeria: a case study in African nation building.
7th October: Southern Africa: land, labour and race.
14th October: China: The Great Tradition.
4th November: East Asia: reactions to the impact of the West.
11th November: Mao and the Chinese Revolution.

Spring Term

3rd March: Latin America: The colonial epoch and its aftermath.
10th March: Latin America: The modern age.
17th March: India under the Raj: New perspectives.
24th March: Indian nationalism.

B INTER NAVEX '70

International Audio Visual Aids Conference and Exhibition

In his opening speech at the National Hall, Olympia, London on July 12th 1970, Professor Lauwerys, Joint Chairman with Lord Boyle of the Education Advisory Committee of the Parliamentary Group for World Government, made a number of observations pertinent to world studies. These were in connection with planning the production of films for world understanding.

(1) The position with regard to audio-visual media is unlike that in school History textbooks, there is not a backlog of nationalist film material being used in schools, which has first to be cancelled out. With the written word we have to clear away the enormous legacy of the last 110 years of education as deposited in textbook material, not to mention the build up of national heroes which goes with it. But with audio-visual media we start with a relatively clear score and the field is wide open for innovation.

(2) In 'Do Films Teach World Understanding' — a report on existing audio-visual material (Obtainable from the P.G.W.G. House of Commons, S.W.1. 5/-) an attempt was made to define what exactly is meant by 'a sense of world community'.

The films were tested for their contribution towards or against the following four concepts:—

(a) We ought to think more about the problems which are common to people everywhere:— an awareness that the world community exists whether we know it or not, or like it or not.

(b) We need to be as proud of being world citizens as we are of being citizens of our own country:— loyalty to the world community.

(c) Many problems today can be solved only through supra-national organs of government:— need for institutions to regulate conflict between national governments.

(d) Understanding the ways of life of peoples of other countries is more important today than ever before in history:— the importance of differences of ways of life.

(3) Of these four objectives perhaps only the last is adequately covered. There have been many excellent films showing the way of life in different countries, especially remote countries like Peru, Papua, or Eskimoland. A new German-made series of 44 films, 'Man and his World', is a good example of this. But the other three concepts still remain to be explored and expressed. It is true that some films are beginning to come through now dealing with our first concept: problems dealt with as common to people everywhere: for instance 'Shadow of Progress' made by British Petroleum dealing with the problem of pollution seen globally. There are also the 'Earth and Mankind' series and the 'Comparisons' series both made by the National Film Board of Canada but getting a bit dated by now. These two educational series take the whole human family as their subject. The comparison method, of course, is a combination of the 4th concept which I have mentioned with the 1st concept. A more recent example is the television series 'Family of Man', producer John Percival, shown on BBC 2. This showed the Seven Ages of the Family of Man dealing with teenagers, bringing up children, married life, weddings, old age, death, and birth by taking examples from Esher, Colne in Lancashire, the Himalayas of India, New Guinea, and North West Botswana. The other two concepts which we believe to be important in encouraging a sense of world community are: 'We need to be as proud of being world citizens as we are of being citizens of our own country', and 'many problems can be solved today through supra-national organs of government'. It is on these two concepts where we would like to see much more material being produced. The Parliamentary Group recently showed one of the rare non-U.N. films on this, 'Who Speaks for Man?' at a special viewing in the House of Commons. It was a film made from a T.V. programme, and therefore perhaps too repetitive. U.N. films have, of course, dealt from time to time with the problems of supra-national organs of government. We are all familiar with pictures punctuated with shots of the Security Council and no sooner do we see them than a sort of mental lassitude comes over us, a kind of boredom by visual infection which sometimes reduces questions of war and peace to a gallery of diplomats sitting behind desks like schoolboys (but all carefully labelled, in case anyone should mistake them for world citizens). It is as if we judged a marriage by a wedding photograph or the problems of Great Britain by a photo of the Coronation. A very recent film produced by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (O.E.C.D.) is very much better than most U.N. films, it starts with the splendid idea of comparing the life of a bus driver in Detroit with the driver of the same make of bus in Calcutta but even in this one the Council Sessions of O.E.C.D. keep butting in like a commercial for office fittings.

When it comes to dealing with the 4th concept of being as proud of being world citizens as we are of being citizens of our own country we often find ourselves in the world of animated cartoons, there being great shortage of world citizens to exemplify the meaning of the term. Yet this question of loyalty to the

world community is perhaps the key to it all. The main problem in creating a system of world order that provides peace on earth is not of knowing what to do, as Professor Toynbee has said, but of **feeling** what we already know. There is an additional reason for encouraging people to **feel** as members of a world community: in education where too often in the classroom, teaching has been reason divorced from emotion, there is a danger that this may produce emotion devoid of reason outside the classroom. We need, in fact, 'education of the imagination', or at least a far greater awareness of the grammar of the various languages of sensory perception. Music is today perhaps the only language of feeling potentially open, through sound broadcasting, to all human beings. This brings me on to a main conclusion which our Committee first put up to the Prime Minister amongst 11 ideas for creating an environment in which a sense of world community could develop. The idea is for there to be created somewhere on this planet an Audio-Visual Centre for World Perspectives which would aim to act as a focus for the production of more material in this field.

Audio-Visual Centre for World Perspectives

(4) I hope I may be forgiven if I may now describe a little of what this Centre could do: there need not be just one such Centre, as the functions which it could fulfil are numerous. There could be a number of Centres, but we need to start somewhere. We are not the only people to have proposed such a Centre. 'Business Screen' in March this year made a similar proposal and so did the survey undertaken by the Association for Liberal Education, 1969. The following is a list of some of the functions which would seem appropriate:

(a) A collection of audio-visual material on this subject, as defined in the 4 concepts recommended in our survey with viewing and lending facilities. In spite of excellent service in this field provided by Concord Films for educationalists, it is a regular complaint of members that it is difficult to search through so many catalogues.

We ourselves commissioned someone this Spring to go through all the potential material. It took him nearly 3 months and in the end only 9 films were recommended either because they made a **positive** contribution by promoting ideas of human brotherhood, peace, understanding etc. or because they made a **negative** contribution by showing things that are wrong, and need changing. However, when a panel viewed some of them, we found they were not good enough to be able to list in a special catalogue as we had first intended. It is clear indeed that if we are going to get the films we need, they will have to be specially commissioned.

(b) The establishment of a panel or panels for viewing new material and keeping catalogues up to date.

(c) Publication and collation of relevant catalogues.

(d) The creation of units of programmed learning, including units for 'One World' exhibitions travelling in vans and sent round countries anywhere in the world.

(e) The giving of prizes for the T.V. series or film programme (or other audio-visual media, such as units of programmed learning) which does most to create a sense of world community.

(f) Study of the social impact of audio-visual media as a major influence in creating a sense of world community.

(g) Production of a series of films or T.V. series on problems of world order, e.g. oceanspace, minorities, money, management, education, frontiers, representation.

We are considerably nearer the realisation of this last item by a proposal which has been discussed with professionals in the film news business, for the use of film news material to be made up every month or indeed every week into a 10 or 15 minute programme taken from the news material of the preceding period and viewed as a problem of world order.

The market for the products of such a Centre is difficult to forecast in that such an institution has never existed. In the U.S.A. the number of teachers who can be expected to make use of, hire, or buy films is known and it is estimated that producers will break-even financially if 200 prints (at about $100 each) are sold. In Europe the distribution system needs to be remodelled for general studies film material and at least one British film producer is known to be trying to do this. The existence of a large number of UNESCO clubs in various parts of the world, of over 2,000 entries received from teachers in 31 countries for the World Community Heroes International Competition organised by our Committee of 1,350 schools in Britain alone which are affiliated to the Council for Education in World Citizenship, 117 Colleges of Education which replied to the survey of the Association for Liberal Education — 14 spending £100-£150 p.a., and of the existence of U.N. Associations in more than 50 countries. All this seems to indicate that an adequate market exists if the product is designed to cater for an **international clientele.** Other potential viewers might well be immigrant and refugee populations in view of their awareness of the need for a sense of community wider than national. In this country we now have 5 or 6 Local Education Authorities with Closed Circuit Television Networks, namely London, Hull, Glasgow, Coventry, Plymouth, and Essex which will increasingly need 'software' as the jargon has it, if the 'hardware' which has been installed at such great expense is to be fully used.

What is certain is that without a lot of audio-visual material, education in the developing countries will be totally unable to meet the demand caused by increases in population. In some form or other audio-visual material will have to become available and it is therefore up to those who see the essential importance for education to encourage a sense of world community, to take steps to see that the material with this aim is available in time. As in the past the initiative is far more likely to come from non-governmental agencies than from those of government. A strong lead from those who are already successful in the world of art could set a trend which multinational corporations, and the foundations which they can set up, might well be ready to follow.

C. London History Teachers' Association

(Hon. Sec.: Tom Hastie, 198 Casewick Road, West Norwood, S.E.27).

All teachers of History and Social Studies in and around London are eligible for membership: an exciting programme of meetings has been arranged for the academic session 1970-71.

D. A Swiss Initiative

Association Mondiale pour l'Ecole Instrument de Paix
Rue de Rive 1,
1204 Genèva,
Suisse.

Mon cher Professeur,
Je tiens à vous faire part de toute ma reconnaissance pour l'accueil si chaleureux que vous m'avez réservé; j'espère que de ce contact naitra une collaboration féconde.

Mlle Monica Wingate, ainsi que Mme Margaret Quass et Monsieur Cozens, se sont montrés très intéressès par la vulgarisation des bases pédagogiques que nous proposons. A chacun d'eux, j'ai expliqué qu'il serait important d'essayer de coordonner sur le plan planétaire une émission pédagogique, qui devrait avoir lieu en même temps qu'une mondovision ayant trait â un prochain alunissage.
En ce qui concerne la section anglaise de l'Ecole Instrument de Paix, je crois qu'elle pourrait jouer un rôle prépondérant en soutenant notre initiative auprè de ses anciennes colonies; afin d'éviter toute méfiance de leur part, il serait important, me semble-t-il, de faire savoir â chacune d'elle qu'il s'agit d'une initiative d'origine Suisse.

Vous remerciant pour la très intéressante documentation que vous m'avez remise, ainsi que de votre entretien, je vous prie de croire, Mon cher Professeur, en l'expression de mes sentiments les meilleurs.

Jacques MUHLETHALER
Président de l' EIP

(Editor's Note: Monsieur Mühlethaler will be glad to hear from all interested).

CHANGE OF NAME

Please note that as and from 17th June, 1970

THE PEACE RESEARCH CENTRE OF THE CONFLICT RESEARCH SOCIETY

has been re-named

THE RICHARDSON INSTITUTE FOR CONFLICT AND PEACE RESEARCH

Director: Michael Nicholson, M.A., Ph.D.

The address remains the same:
Belgrove House,
Belgrove Street,
London WC1H 8AA.
Telephone: 01-837 8921

IV. PUBLICATIONS

'Israel and the Arab World'

C. H. Dodd and Mary Sales
(Routledge and Kegan Paul 1970)

Few editors of the justly popular modern collection of historical documents can have been faced with a bigger challenge than C. H. Dodd and Mary Sales in their volume 'Israel and the Arab World' in the World Studies Series. Aware as they clearly were of the dangers of bias in the selection of documents concerning the heart breaking, bitter and complex story of Arab-Israeli relations, they have largely succeeded in providing the necessary balance in a stimulating series of extracts from official and semi-official records and from contemporary writing in journals and historical works.

In their preface, the editors state, ' . . . we have sought to make the documents tell the story of Arab-Israeli relations, or, rather, to make the story grow out of the documentation'. That the story does, in fact, arise and confront the reader in such a powerful way is, in good measure, due to the clarity of the guidance given in the 27 page introduction and in the precise explanations and comments made in introducing documents or in linking one topic with another. This guidance, it is true, is kept to a minimum — I would myself have enjoyed a development of the sections in the introduction which discussed the subjects in its wider international dimensions — but it is very well-written and succeeds in providing the necessary basis for an understanding of the documents themselves and of some of the legal complexities associated with them. Moreover, its relative brevity keeps the emphasis on the original material.

This volume provides no dogmatic presentation of facts and opinions; indeed one of the important features of the editorial comment is the care taken to appeal to the detective instinct and to stimulate questioning in the reader's mind. Throughout the text, questions are constantly raised, and often pointers are given to relevant material. The appendix contains a useful list of suggested topics for further discussion, several of which would form good bases for debates.

The documentation begins with seven pages of maps. (I found it helpful to put a bookmark here for ease of reference). There is next a population graph, confusing in some ways, which nevertheless highlights the growth of population in the area. The reader is then confronted with 'the basic argument' between the two nationalisms put forward in a moderate way by Chaim Weizmann in 1936 and Constance Zurayk in 1947, and from this point, he can hardly escape an agonising involvement with both sides in the conflict. Sections quoting the written undertakings to both sides during World War 1 and parts of the Peace Settlement are followed by the

Peel Commission's statement of July 1937 '. . . it seems to us possible that on reflection both parties will come to realise that the drawbacks of Partition are outweighed by its advantages' (Quoted p.73). Next the involvement of the United Nations and the emergence of the state of Israel with consequent hopes and fears are clearly illustrated.

More than half the volume is concerned with the period since the Soviet-Egyptian arms deal of September 1955 called by Walter Laqueur 'the great turning point in the Middle East, the end of one era and the beginning of another' (Quoted p.111). This enables the editors to devote more detailed coverage to key problems like the refugee issue, still perhaps the major stumbling block to agreement between Israel and her immediate Arab neighbours, and to U. Thant's much debated decision of May 1967 to withdraw, at Nasser's request, the United Nations Emergency Force stationed in Sinai. The 1967 'June War' is not described but instead, much more significantly, space is given to the attitude of the Arabs to defeat and the further problems left in its wake. 'Individuals may succumb to the symptoms of old age, including forgetfulness, but people are immortal, rejuvenescent and eternally young' stated Nasser at a press conference just before the June War, (quoted p.151) and this attitude, together with decisions from Arab Summit Conferences helps one to agree with the editors' conclusion concerning Arab reaction to defeat — 'We are face to face with long-term Arab hostility as well as more immediate and transient defiance' (p.173).

The editors' final chapter considers whether there are 'specific points of dispute between Arabs and Israelis whose solution would set Arab-Israeli relations to rights' — Israel's access to the southern seas, the division of the Jordan waters, the position of Jerusalem, the refugee problem, the boundaries' problem — and concludes that it is 'fundamental convictions about the right to sovereignty over Palestine' that are the mainspring of differences between Arab and Jew (p.226/228).

This book with its well judged text and documents, its efficient index and its short bibliography of recent works, all within the compass of 247 pages, should prove to be a very good basis for student work in its field. Frustrated as the concerned student may be at the lack of compromise in this 'stark confrontation in the Middle East of two collective wills, each burdened with the accumulated passions of the past' (Dr. J. Henderson in the General Editor's preface) he cannot but echo profoundly the editors' hope 'that fertile minds will be stimulated further to seeking new ways of approach to what is one of the world's most intractable problems.'

Joan Eddowes.

Peace on the March
(Transnational Participation)

Robert C. Angell

Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, N.Y. 1969

This must be one of the first attempts by a trained sociologist to estimate the degree to which the span of human beings' global consciousness has increased during recent history. On p. 184-5 Dr Angell summarizes his findings:—

1. There is a rapidly growing movement of positive influence from transnational participation.

2. Domestic participation of elites in developed countries is probably now increasing as rapidly as transnational participation and hence non-accommodative attitudes are not growing as rapidly as accommodative ones in these countries.

3. Experienced transnationals do attempt to exert influence on foreign policy.

4. Accommodative outcomes of conflicts among nations have become more frequent during the same period that transnational participation has been increasing.

Points that cast doubt on the validity of this fourfold hypothesis are the present position of the People's Republic of China and the fact that the domestic participation of under-de-

veloped countries may be increasing faster than their transnational participation, thus stimulating chauvinism, not internationalism. As the author concludes:—

> 'World peace will not arrive at the blast of a trumpet. Neither will it be produced by some technological marvel newly unveiled. It will be created by a creeping vine which, if properly nourished, will slowly enfold the globe.' (p.197).

European Studies Handbook

A Guide to Materials and Sources for teaching European Studies in Secondary Schools.

Prepared by Peggotty Freeman B.A.,

Centre for Contemporary European Studies and Centre for Educational Technology. University of Sussex. (May, 1970. 5/-).

The handbook is divided into the following sections:—

I Language Study, Life and Institutions
II Regional and Economic Geography
III Environmental Questions
IV Social Policies
V Science and Technology
VI Human Rights
VII European Way of Life
VIII The Contemporary Political Scene
IX European Integration
X Europe and the World

Teaching History

A Bulletin published by the Historical Association 59a Kennington Park Road, London S.E.11.

May 1970. Volume 1 Number 3.

Further enlarged to 96 pages the articles cover a wide range and there are few years of school life that do not receive a mention. In addition, Mr R. Wake, H.M. Staff Inspector for History, provides an important challenging contribution under the title 'History as a Separate Discipline; the Case.'

The World and the School

Administrative and Editorial Services:
23/25 Abbey House, 8 Victoria Street,
London S.W.1.

The latest number of this handbook for teachers, THE WORLD AND THE SCHOOL has changed its format quite considerably. Each issue is now to contain a section on one topic (in May 1970, World Food) together with comment from educationalists and teachers. We have kept History in the Making and also the section devoted to Educational Topics.

We hope to enlarge the review section quite considerably.

Problems of Peace

Gerald Bailey in 'The World Today Series', Ginn, 18 Bedford Row, London SC1R 4 EJ.

Peace in Europe
Birnbaum

Professor Karl E. Birnbaum, Director of the Swedish Institute of International Affairs, has written **Peace in Europe, East-West Relations 1966-1968 and the Prospects for a European Settlement.** (O.U.P. Paperbacks, 1970) under the auspices of the Harvard Center for International Affairs and it is published in co-operation with the Royal Institute of International Affairs; therein he makes a useful, interim analysis of the major trends in European diplomacy in the late 1960s. The limitations of such a study at the present time are clearly recognised by Professor Birnbaum and public official statements, 'at best an imperfect reflection of how those in power think and feel, and how they see the world around them' are the basis of this book, and the net is cast sufficiently wide to include important sources in both European 'blocs'; the actions of governments in following up their declared policies are critically examined throughout. Teachers of European history at the Sixth Form level and above will find that this book provides much information that is neither generally nor readily available.

The story that is recounted is not attractive. The comparatively relaxed atmosphere of the mid-1960s is seen to decline within the period of this study. The first part of the book is concerned with the attitudes of the more significant Western and Eastern European countries towards the European detente. There follows — what many teachers may find to be the most useful part of the book — a close study of the origins and the impact of the Czechoslovak invasion of 1968. In the final chapter, 'Prospects for Peace in Europe' a sombre picture of the risks consequent on the failure of those prospects is painted. Western policy towards Eastern Europe has in this period lacked 'clarity and consistency' and a move towards greater independence of Western Europe from the U.S.A. in the future is seen as a hopeful and a probable development. Suggestions are made for future centres of interest that might lead to greater harmony and particular attention is given to relations within divided Germany. But Professor Birnbaum sees reason for optimism so far as the future of Europe is concerned and this is found most especially in the fact that there is abroad today a far greater concern for the needs of man in his technological environment than there has been in the past. The fact that this is so is itself strong encouragement for the teaching of World problems and the stimulation of thought about them among ourselves and among the students with whom we are concerned.

John Martell.

V. THEME

World Studies — Some Observations

Elizabeth Mauchline Roberts

A survey carried out by the Parliamentary Group for World Government, published in 1962, made this one of its conclusions: 'Britain compared with other countries offers the more able of her adolescents, between fifteen and eighteen, far less world history and far less recent history than their contemporaries receive elsewhere'. Secondly the Group concluded that those who leave school at fifteen have hardly any teaching at all about the world outside Great Britain. Although this report was published eight years ago there appears unfortunately to be little evidence to show that the situation has substantially altered.

Undoubtedly a large number of syllabuses for the teaching of world studies have been compiled, some have been published in educational journals, and a growing number of examining bodies now offer syllabusi covering world history, and this has been accompanied by a great increase in the number of suitable books published. But it would still appear that the vast majority of secondary schools continue to teach almost exclusively English history.

Last year I lectured in General Studies to a full-time 'A' Level group in a technical college. The course was on Twentieth Century World History. The students were drawn from a wide diversity of secondary school backgrounds — from grammar and secondary modern schools from the surrounding area, and from independent schools from a much wider area. None had previously studied world history and their ignorance about even the major events of the past decades was quite unbelievable.

The most boring lesson I have ever endured was when, as a student teacher, I sat through forty minutes on a hot summer's day 'observing' a lady of impeccable, indeed outstanding, scholastic ability droning on at a class of bored eleven-year-olds about 'The Greek Deities'. I would hope that lessons such as that do not still occur and that history teachers will always be mindful of those three basic tenets, one would like to say truisms, of all teaching; firstly, start where the children are; secondly, provide interesting material because a bored pupil learns nothing; and thirdly, make the learning experience relevant to the pupils' environment. Difficulties arise when teachers attempt to relate these generalities to a specific history syllabus and interpret them along traditional narrow lines. Too

many teachers believe that, since their pupils live in Britain, that is 'Where they are', that is the environment which must be explained and that only topics which are directly relevant to the history of this country can be meaningful and interesting to their pupils.

Long ago I came to believe that whatever 'brand' of history I chose to teach must help the pupil to develop a loyalty to the human race and must contribute to his or her understanding of the world, not just the national environment. I believe this because, whether we like it or not, we are all citizens of one world. The man in Nigeria, China or Indonesia can be nearer to us in travelling time, than were people two counties apart in the eighteenth century. Man can now travel to the moon and back in about half the time it took in the eighteenth century for him to travel from London to Edinburgh. That we are all world citizens is a fact, whether we are good or bad citizens to a large extent depends on our education.

Regretfully there is in this country abundant evidence to show that, as world citizens, we are not making the grade. It is still too easy to ignore the plight of the starving child over the way — in Africa, or that destitute family, our neighbours — in Calcutta. For many it is this ignorance which prevents them from becoming good world citizens. Others, by propagating or supporting racialist policies are implicitly choosing to be bad world citizens.

Ignorance and misinformation leads to deep-rooted and frequently hidden prejudice. Last year research for a T.V. programme revealed that only about 6% of the population will give money to Oxfam (this figure is accepted as roughly correct by Oxfam), Further research by social psychologists showed that behind the false arguments which people use to excuse their lack of generosity, lay many profound prejudices against the poor, the hungry and the coloured peoples of the world. Few of those interviewed showed any knowledge or understanding of **why** they are poor and hungry, and certainly little appreciation of the part which we, the British have played in their history which might explain their present situation. Watching that programme I was reminded of the words of G. B. Shaw: 'The greatest of evils and the worst of crimes is poverty.'

Within the teaching profession there are many who believe that the only way to ensure that the next generation may be given an awareness of their responsibilities as world citizens is through an education which gives them a wider perspective on life, and one way in which this can be accomplished is through the study of modern world history. But would such a course conform to the three basic principles of teaching outlined above? I believe that it would, simply because, through the medium of television, most of our pupils have been made aware of world affairs in a way never experienced by previous generations. They see and are concerned with race riots in the United States, the war in Indo-China, the conflict between the Communist and non-Communist world, starvation in Asia and Africa. Many of our older pupils are idealists and want to do something about these problems; many acknowledge the interdependency of nations and therefore recognise their world citizenship; they require from their teachers explanations of why the world is as it is.

For the past year I have been teaching only Indian Muslim children. Some are in a special class for a year's intensive course prior to integration with the appropriate stream in this secondary modern school. Others, fifteen-year-old boys, in the fourth year, come for extra English lessons. The periods with this latter group rapidly developed into General Studies, or rather World Studies. This experience has made me realize more forcibly than before that, with the increasing immigrant population in our schools, it is quite pointless with non specialists to spend time in history lessons studying the Wars of the Roses, the nineteenth century Free Trade Movement and similar topics dear to the heart of so many academic historians.

Events in England's distant past hold little intrinsic interest for most English fourth

formers; for their immigrant classmates they are as irrelevant as they must be incomprehensible. My group of Indians were, not unnaturally, interested in the development of India; so we studied, in some detail, the life of Gandhi and events leading up to Indian independence; we have also considered some of India's present problems and possible solutions. They are deeply concerned about the Middle East situation, so we have tried to work out, in discussions, the reasons why people fight, and to consider whether it is possible for people of different religions to live peaceably together. (They were able to recognise the achievement of Gandhi who kept the peace between Hindus and Muslims in Calcutta in 1947, whilst an army failed to do the same thing in the Punjab). Together we have tried to find some of the links between Judaism, Christianity and Islam, and they themselves were able to pick out many. They were very interested in the World Cup and this gave us an opportunity to discuss questions like race relations in Brazil.

The presence of these immigrant pupils in the integrated streams has revealed some of the pitfalls of treating World Studies as an extension of British History. In their studies of British Empire and Commonwealth History English pupils have been interested and disturbed to discover that their Indian friends regard the British occupation of India as a period of suppression, plunder and exploitation; the Indians are equally interested to hear that, among other things, they have the British to thank for their railway system, roads, irrigation channels and many schools and hospitals. The new dimension thus brought to the studies of all the children must be welcomed.

Another great interest of the Indian boys has been the problems of immigrants to this country. All the fourth year pupils have been watching an excellent I.T.V. series called 'Our Neighbours' (which is to be repeated next year). Each programme began with a short survey of the people and customs of the lands from which the immigrants came; then, illustrated by one or two case studies, the programme examined some facets of the lives of immigrant families.

As a follow-up to the programme on the West Indies we discussed the general background of slavery and race relations in the United States. For the programme on India the boys prepared a little exhibition for the English children, with drawings, posters and photographs supplied by Oxfam's Educational Department. These covered tourist India, life in Indian villages and the problems of hunger, overpopulation and disease. For the programme on Pakistan they collected and drew pictures of Muslim architecture and prepared short talks on Islam. Following both these latter programmes there was much lively discussion, and one hopes that both Indians and English learned from one another, and that the 'dialectical' method (referred to below) was successful!

From this limited experience I can testify to the validity of one of the arguments for studying world affairs: that it increases understanding between people of different races. In their attitudes towards coloured immigrants it would appear that English children go through three stages: while they constitute only a small minority in the school, they are regarded as a novelty and rather smothered with too much 'do-gooding' benevolence. As their numbers increase they are more and more looked upon with suspicion and hostility, and they come to rely less on English companions and more on their own compatriots. As they become more of a group apart so wild rumours about their living and eating habits tend to circulate and mutual antagonism thrives. A third stage can be attained through such discussions and interchange of experiences as I have described. In this way misconceptions and prejudices can be removed on both sides; both English and immigrants learn to recognise similarities between them, to accept the reasons for their differences and, perhaps most important of all, the English children come to understand why the immigrants come here. To some this may be an over-optimistic assessment, but from my own experience and from that of members of staff with more years of service than I this seems to be a general pattern which has developed.

In complete contrast to this recent experience with the immigrant children was the previous year's work in World Studies with the 'A' Level group in a technical college, as part of their general studies which were not examined. There it was possible to plan a syllabus covering some of the major political developments in the twentieth century. The course started with the students in a state of passive ignorance about recent historical events; but through their active interest in current affairs a 'way in' was soon found. I found the biographical and social approach to be the most successful. Through a study of the lives of Lenin and Stalin it was possible to show how Communist Revolution affected the lives of ordinary Russians. I used a similar approach with Mao Tse-Tung and the Chinese Communist Revolution and, through the life of Roosevelt, we studied what it was like to live through the Depression and New Deal and how the United States emerged as the most powerful world state in the second World War.

For reasonably academic 16-17 year-olds this biographical and social approach appears to be the most meaningful way of studying historical events or movements. I have rarely discovered a student in this age and ability range who is interested in discussing political issues on a purely theoretical level. (Of course, there are exceptions, as I discovered when talking to a United Nations Youth Group about the life of Mao; although I enjoyed the lengthy exchange of views I had with two vocal members who owed allegiance to an obscure Marxist faction, I felt that the rest of the group were impatient with the political abstractions and were more concerned to hear about what the Revolution meant in terms of the lives of ordinary people.)

Every teacher should be constantly alert to the danger of his teaching of World Studies becoming indoctrination. There is no place for propaganda in the classroom, for bigotry cannot be overcome by biased teaching and pupils have a right not to be preached at; tolerance is caught, not taught. The teacher must try to present the facts as honestly as possible; putting both sides of the question, especially when dealing with such topics as conflicts between the Communist and non-Communist world, and between different racial groups as in South Africa. If, in this way, children can be encouraged to develop their critical faculties, they should be able to draw their own conclusions.

Only the truth can set us free from fear, ignorance and prejudice. Last year Jan Palach died in Czechoslovakia because he felt that the Czech people were not being told the truth. His death was an echo of that of Jan Hus, the Fourteenth century Czech martyr whose prayer has universal significance:

Seek the truth,
Listen to the truth,
Teach the truth,
Love the truth,
Abide by the truth,
And defend the truth,
Unto death.

How can we best help our pupils to discover the truth? Truth is not only a body of accurate information; men have used facts to construct powerful, and often conflicting ideologies, and these ideologies are often more powerful than the facts they grow out of. Only through discussion, argument and becoming aware of as many different points of view as possible, can our pupils come to the truth. Socrates, in Ancient Greece, formulated the dialectical method — since no man can have the monopoly of truth, it is by the expression of conflicting points of view that knowledge and justice are increased. This dialectical method was used by the great medieval Christian philosophers and found new expression in the nineteenth century in the works of Hegel and Marx. Hegel argued that a synthesis could be formed from two opposing points of view — the thesis and antithesis. 'For both sides are partly right and partly wrong and when the rights and wrongs are properly weighed, a third position emerges, more adequate than either.'

So let us encourage with all our pupils argument, discussion based on informed opinion, and guide them towards reliable information.

It is very likely that, at this stage, many will want to translate the truth as they have found it into action. Here, it would seem to me, the teacher has a further task — to inform and advise pupils of ways in which their ideals can be translated into practical deeds — helping locally with a multi-racial playgroup, joining a Young Oxfam Group or the U.N.A., or working abroad with V.S.O.

I have tried to emphasize that the teacher must not abuse his position by attempting to indoctrinate his pupils, the more intelligent of whom would soon find him out and react accordingly. Nevertheless the teacher of World Studies has already made a moral and philosophical decision in choosing to teach these subjects. Without overtly persuading his pupils that any particular ideology is **right** he must be able to communicate his emotional commitment to increasing international understanding and international loyalties. He must also demonstrate his concern for world problems with a sense of urgency, since there is very little time left in which to solve them.

In other words, if we cannot reach our pupils at a level deeper than the purely intellectual one, then our task is only half done. I am haunted by a saying of Berdyaev: 'Bread for myself is a material question, bread for my neighbour is a spiritual question.' A man may be convinced intellectually about the need to help the world's hungry, or to halt the population explosion, but he will not act unless his heart is moved too. We who call ourselves Christian must feel in our hearts what the story of the Good Samaritan is all about, and act upon it. Those who do not share the Christian viewpoint must somehow develop an emotional and spiritual commitment to world citizenship as well as an intellectual one.

'Bread for myself is a material question; bread for my neighbour is a spiritual question.'

Special Education Provision for Immigrant Children

C. A. Hodgkinson

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Derby, in common with many industrial centres, is receiving considerable numbers of non-English speaking children from various parts of the Commonwealth. There are Indians (mainly Sikhs and some Hindus) from the districts of Hoshiarpur and Jullander in the Punjab. These are Punjabi speaking children, although many of the more literate ones can also read and write in Hindi. In addition, we are receiving an increasing number of Pakistani children (at present mainly boys) from Northern Pakistan and Azad-Kashmir. These children speak Urdu, which in its written form is completely different from the other two languages. There are also many children from other parts of the world and, although in relatively small numbers, they have one thing in common — the inability to speak, read, or write English.

This lack of English is one of the major difficulties facing many of our schools today. Many articles and books have been written recently advocating 'Integration' and condemning 'segregation'. These sentiments are commendable but before integration is possible there must be communication and neither the teacher in the class-room, facing this situation for the first time, can communicate nor can the pupil. Until these children can speak English they cannot even begin to become fully-integrated members of their class and school community. They certainly cannot be educated to the maximum of their aptitude and ability and in the end they find it difficult to obtain the type of employment of which they would be capable if their English were comparable with that of their native-born contemporaries.

Most of the Asian children come from village communities — indeed several of our recent entrants from Azad-Kashmir have come from tiny hamlets 10,000 feet above sea level in

the wild country leading to Gilgit and Hunza. Quite often these children have had very little continuous education. Within two or three days they are transported from the mountains or the Punjab plains to the industrial atmosphere of the East Midlands — to the compact and heavily populated area of Derby.

There are many cases of 'culture shock' and it shows itself in a variety of ways, e.g. the obvious ones of fear — refusal to leave parents or relatives, real or feigned illness; the other types — cases of refusal to speak or to answer their own compatriots and the teacher — the 'cutting off' of all communications, lack of interest in their surroundings — and apparent 'backwardness'. All these behaviour problems — and more — are the lot of the teacher who has to deal with these newcomers.

The amazing thing is that so few of the children do show these symptoms — but show an amazing adaptability and cheerfulness, and a keen desire to learn.

Schoolteachers in this country have been able to overcome difficulties in teaching other groups of immigrants — then what is so special about this particular situation? In the main, most of the previous groups coming to Britain have had a common European culture and a common linguistic structure. The majority of our newcomers have neither such cultural nor linguistic links. Our Urdu language children write from right to left; they look at all books in this way and therefore eye exercises to change this process must commence immediately. The Punjabi children write under the line; this creates further problems. Generally speaking, all the Asian children have very little skill in Art and craft and the younger children experience great difficulty in holding pens, pencils or brushes correctly. This requires special attention and training. I have employed pupil's blackboards, encouraging the children to use crayons or chalk and to develop their writing and drawing sense.

Before the teacher has the first meeting and realises his or her problems, the Headteacher has had to meet, and try to overcome the almost insuperable language problem and to 'document' the child. This has become a craft in itself. In all cases names are one of the major problems. The Sikhs always have the same name, denoting that they are 'followers of the Guru' namely 'Singh' for boys and 'Kaur' for girls — but by dint of repeated questioning, the family name must be obtained. For example, a girl's name — 'Surinder Kaur Gill' and boy's name 'Avtar Singh Gill.'

Pakistani (Mohommedan) names provide more headaches. Fathers, mothers, brothers and sisters all have different names and therefore care must be taken in obtaining the names of all the family so that younger members can be identified on entry to the school. Dates of birth, however, have possibly caused more trouble than names — if that is possible. Generally speaking, practically all the children coming here have not been documented accurately in their own country.

Registry of births is a very haphazard affair and it may be one or two years before any notification is given. Consequently we sometimes find discrepancies of months and years on the passport entry. These obstacles having been overcome, the next barrier is to ascertain previous education. This knowledge helps considerably in gauging the progress of the child in its new environment. And so we go on — medical history — a tremendous help, particularly if there are any mental or physical defects. Unless a child is accompanied by an extremely 'literate-in-English' relative, the problem for the Headteacher is well nigh insurmountable and because of this a child can be handicapped for a considerable time before it is able to explain more fully to its teachers.

All these problems, and more, have caused Local Authorities to create documentation centres, staffed by individuals conversant with the languages. Alternatively, various schools have been nominated as 'Reception Centres' and have been given Indian and Pakistani staff to deal with this continual flow.

In Derby the numbers of Caribbean immi-

grants are comparable with those of Asiatic children — but their problem is not quite the same. We appreciate the many difficulties facing these children. They too suffer from 'culture shock' quite often showing severe emotional stress, creating extra problems for parents, educational welfare services and teachers alike. They also suffer from a 'language problem'; their different form of English, with its own code and rules, creates many difficulties for teachers and pupils alike. In Derby Caribbean children are placed in ordinary multi-racial classes throughout the various age levels. Where difficulties in language are experienced these children are transferred to remedial groups or are taught on a part-time withdrawal basis.

During the last few years Derby's Local Education Authority, working in co-operation with the teachers and the representatives of the immigrants in the town, has worked quietly to achieve a well-balanced scheme of equal educational opportunity for all. It is possibly the first L.E.A. to establish a sub-committee of the full Education Committee to deal with all matters pertaining to immigrant education. One well-equipped Language Centre has been in existence for two years and a second will be opened in the near future. The Centre deals with all juvenile newcomers to the town whose English is insufficient to enable them to cope with the normal school situation. The children are retained for approximately two terms then transferred to Junior and Secondary schools where they are given additional English lessons until they can be integrated into the normal classes.

All schools in Derby with large numbers of immigrant pupils are given additional capitation allowances, increased accommodation, additional staff for withdrawal classes, smaller classes in infant schools and extra ancillary and clerical help. To help communications between parents and teachers West Indian and Asiatic Education Welfare Officers were appointed in 1968. They have already proved their worth and have certainly proved the wisdom of creating these posts.

The continuing liaison between the L.E.A. and teacher's organisations is shown by meetings held regularly to discuss and alleviate difficulties covering the entire age range from 5 years up to the College of Further age groups. Because of this co-operation Derby is able to point to an increasing number of immigrant school-leavers going forward to Further Education. In addition many are being accepted for all types of apprenticeships and training courses in the town's varied industries.

It is at this crucial stage of career opportunities that we really can measure whether the special provisions are working effectively. On the basis of our present statistics the situation is reassuring, but I am certain that the L.E.A. and its teachers will still not be satisfied. The actions taken to date are all part of reports and recommendations put forward by joint committees of teachers and officials and it will only be by this continued close co-operation that success will be finally achieved and we shall be able to say truthfully 'Immigrants — yes! we have many — but no insuperable problems.'

The Peoples' Friend

Oppression, the peoples' friend,
is a dog.
And politicians writhe
beneath the soul of opinion
and promise the earth to the meek
who have already been bequeathed it.
While a voice from below unquotes,
you have made your bed of lies
now nail on it;
vote dog the flavour you can trust.
While over the uncommons
floats the millstone halo,
tilt lost ball and match
oppression, the peoples' friend,
is a dog.
And the voice from the sky muttered,
"Get me down"
The 100% prophets gathered
and prophesied
"It's a chill wind that makes people ill."
Oppression, the peoples' friend,
Is a dog.

George Duck

New Curriculum Developments in School Geography

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> 'Perhaps the gap between what geography was in elementary school and what it is today, is greater than any of the "new" subjects, even greater than mathematics.'[1]

William Bunge's statement, written in 1966, may come as a surprise to non-geographers, particularly those one occasionally meets in staff or common rooms, who still think of geography as being in the capes and bays stage from which it emerged in schools in the early years of this century. Geography has so far enjoyed quiet but effective revolutions. Its present turmoil may be the noisiest so far, but its degree of effectiveness remains to be seen.

The first important curriculum development in geography was its emancipation from the system of rote learning of strings of facts and lists of distributions. This emancipation was gained through the influence of such pioneers as Sir H. J. Mackinder and A. J. Herbertson, and through the efforts of such teachers as J. Fairgrieve. With their new freedom, geography teachers in the early part of this century were able to develop ideas of the relationship between man and his environment, some, it is true, verging on a deterministic outlook, but others maintaining a more balanced possibilism which considered the limitations imposed on man by his environment and the possibilities of approach open to him.

Thus the geographical curriculum was revolutionised from one concerned with mere rote learning to one dealing with relationships, explanations and the discussion of possibilities, using real examples as illustrations. The 'new' geography, as it was called, was certainly welcomed, but the welcome was neither universal, nor without reservations. In 1915, the reviewer of the revised edition of the Board of Education's 'Suggestions for the Teaching of Geography'[2] wrote as follows:— 'The old geography, being purely an examination subject, resolved itself into mere memory work and unpleasant grinding. The new geography was understood by but few. To the many it seemed to offer a more rational method by which the great mass of material . . . was to be acquired.' The writer goes on to say that the new geography was brought into prominence by the universities, and contained much that was unsuited to the needs of elementary schools. It was, he thought, '. . . still the object of much scorn and suspicion.' A number of teachers had thrown aside the old tradition, and had been making experiments in the teaching of geography. 'It is only by continual experiment,' concluded the reviewer, 'that we can know what is suitable and possible in elementary schools under the new conditions.'

Much the same situation exists today over what seems likely to become geography's new curricular upheaval. The changes are derived from the research frontier at university level. Many teachers are suspicious and cautious.[3] Some teachers are casting aside much of the old tradition and experimenting with new methodology, new subject matter and new teaching techniques. Unlike the 1915 situation, however, the present changes are also being investigated by research units backed by public funds.

To trace these changes, it is necessary to know something of what is happening to geography at research level, where all the evidence seems to suggest that the discipline is taking a further step forward in its development as a science, which Bunge has described as the science of locations, '. . . seeking to predict locations where before there was contentment with simply describing and classifying them.'[4]

This development parallels that of other disciplines. It begins with pure description, developing into an ever expanding catalogue of descriptive facts — the capes and bays stage. Methods are devised, such as maps and diagrams in geography, so as to create a shorthand for this catalogue, and classifica-

tions are drawn up. Herbertson's natural regions and the various climatic classifications are examples of this. The recognition of relationships is involved in these classifications, and subjective attempts are made at the explanation of the relationships. A greater desire for objectivity arises out of this, and creates a need for a quantitative approach, and thus for statistical analysis. The development of this new numerical proficiency helps to cope with the data explosion and the need to crystallise information and ideas into vital cores of understanding through the greater sophistication of model-building techniques. Models provide the basis for stating laws and making predictions.

At research level, quantification has now become well established, not only in the physical side of geography, but also in the analysis of the work of man on the earth's surface. The model building stage is now in the course of development, and this may lead to the formulation of laws and the possibility of making predictions. Where human activity is concerned, laws and predictions will have to be stated in terms of probabilities.

The problems facing school geography are clear. How much of the new university work is relevant at school level? At what age should selected new techniques be introduced? What is to be retained of the present curriculum? Does the new geography offer any opportunities for the development of new teaching techniques? Is the whole geographical curriculum to be revised, or are the new ideas to be slotted into the existing structure? How are the techniques and methods to be given a proper trial and development programme in schools? What is to be the effect of all this on teacher training, and, most important, on the re-training of practising teachers?

We may begin to answer some of these questions by tracing the history of certain developments since 1963 and 1964, when the first Madingley Hall meetings for geographers were organised by the University of Cambridge Extra-Mural Board. The 1963 lectures were published in 1965, in 'Frontiers in Geographical Teaching,'[5] which was rapidly to become an important talking point, and indeed a spur to action amongst teachers, since it introduced the new quantitative, scientific and model-based theoretical approach to geography, and, more important, showed the way towards the application of some of the ideas in schools.

Some teachers began to experiment with quantitative techniques in schools. They saw the value of models in simplifying complex reality and separating or abstracting essential features from background noise. They recognised that models had already shown their value as teaching devices in the now outmoded models of Davisian erosion cycles and Bergen depressions, to quote but two examples. Some were quick to appreciate that one particular application of models, in geographical games, might lead to the development of a highly motivational teaching technique.[6] They were helped in this by the work of the American High School Geography Project, which from 1964, had been working along similar lines.[7]

In 1967, the Geographical Association set up the Committee on the Role of Models and Quantitative Techniques in Geographical Teaching. The committee was responsible for the investigation which led to Gregory's report in 1969,[8] and for publicising bibliographies on recent developments. Quantitative exercises and games are produced and sent to teachers who have expressed an interest in experimenting with them in the school situation. The Committee hopes that these teachers will send back reports on their experiences and opinions for further consideration.

1970 is destined to be an important year in curriculum development for geography, since it sees the setting up of two research units with the financial backing of the Schools Council. The project investigating curriculum developments in geography for able children aged 14 to 18 years is based at the University of Bristol School of Education, and will probably become fully operational this Autumn. At Avery Hill College of Education, the project for less able children in the 14 to 16 age group also expects to be in full

swing by the end of the year. It seems clear that both teams must necessarily consider quantitative techniques and models as sources for teaching, and teachers will hope that the opportunity to evaluate both methods and materials will be welcomed by the researchers.

It seems possible at this stage to summarise the varieties of approach which are being explored as follows:—

1. Encouraging children to be objective and quantitative in their approach, rather than subjective and mainly qualitative. This is not entirely a new development.

2. Making use of theoretical methods through posing and testing hypotheses, which leads to further development of the scientific approach of observation, recording and interpretation. This involves the construction of models, which may be an encouragement towards achieving clear thinking and the abstraction of the essential characteristic features of a situation. Models may also be tested in reality by the study of various source materials, including field evidence.

3. Making use of simulation techniques and operational games, to involve children in decision-making and role-playing situations and to give them the opportunity for experiential learning.

In all this, the methods are not incompatible with the study of 'reality', nor of concrete geographical features, but rather can be used to heighten the understanding of reality.

There can be little doubt, then, that with the work of the High School Geography Project, the experiments of individual teachers, the work of the Geographical Association Committee and the two Schools Council projects, there is considerable interest in investigating possible significant changes in the geographical curriculum. The attitudes of the Examining Boards[9] and of individual teachers may be the final limiting factors on the extent and nature of the changes.

It seems likely that many teachers of geography will welcome the new developments, since they will in effect be adding new ammunition to their stores. These are the teachers who are already well practised at teaching from source materials, often at first hand in the field. They are those geographers who have found no difficulty in accepting the idea of offering children the opportunity for growth through experiential learning. They will welcome the new techniques as further means of devising practical work about real features of the environment, and will appreciate the chance to put children into problem-solving situations where they can develop a theoretical outlook in their geographical studies.

Two main problems seem to be apparent. One is that if changes are to take place, then teachers must feel the need for them, and must be provided with opportunities for training and practice. The second is that the time may now be propitious for a large scale curriculum development project, for which funds will be required. For many years, geography teachers have practised what one might term 'Nuffield discovery methods', but have in the main had to use their own ideas and collect their own materials for this. Our two Schools Council projects seem small scale indeed, when compared with the American High School Geography Project, which has been running for over six years, with finance from both the Ford Foundation, and the National Science Foundation.

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The Origins and Development of School Councils

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Introduction

School councils are being established in all types of secondary school at a quicker rate than ever before. There is a growing demand for involvement and participation in decision-making at all levels in society, in government, in industry, and in the universities. Not surprisingly, this demand is being felt in schools, and school councils are being established sometimes to cope with these pressures, and on occasions to forestall them. By school council is meant a body, in part nominated or elected by pupils, which meets from time to time, from weekly to annually, and whose chief function is to advise the school authorities, or to take decisions, which they may or may not implement. As the name council (or sometimes congress or parliament) implies, or at least is meant to imply, there is some transference of authority, however great or small, to the pupil body.

Unlike many major educational changes, the introduction of school councils has not been accompanied by careful research, or by assessment and evaluation of existing councils. There are widespread demands for the extension of school councils, and, indeed, there is a growing acceptance by many headmasters, staffs, educationists, and pupils, that councils are both valuable and necessary. The introduction of a council could be, and in some cases is, the most revolutionary event in the recent history of the particular school. It can transform the whole life of the school, for better or worse. And yet there are virtually no research findings at all which can be used to guide those establishing school councils. A headmaster is perhaps more likely to be influenced by a belief in, say, the value of warmer staff-pupil relationships, or by certain political pressures, rather than by the known results of experiments in other schools. Information is passed on over coffee at headmaster's meetings, rather than through learned journals. There are, to be sure, several accounts of councils in progressive schools, and some, though fewer, and harder to find, of councils in state secondary schools, but these rarely contain any evaluation. The situation compares poorly with that in the United States where there is a comparatively large volume of research, most of which is virtually unobtainable in this country. It is important, to begin with, to trace the origins and growth of school councils from the first attempts of the progressive schools at the beginning of the century to the developments of the present time.

School Councils in Progressive Schools

Along with several other features of contemporary secondary schools, school councils had their origin in progressive schools in the early decades of this century. These schools, which are usually said to date from the last decade of the nineteenth century when Cecil Reddie and J. H. Badley founded Abbotsholme and Bedales respectively, were generally referred to as 'New Schools' at first, and they placed emphasis on, amongst other things, giving more feedom to pupils. They leaned heavily on the psychology of the new psycho-analytical school, especially with regard to the theories of child repression and the formation of personality. The attitude developed that the child was more capable of managing his own life than he was given credit for, and that in careful co-operation with others, he could take some part in managing the life of the school. This would be an ideal outlet for the child's need for self-expression. Thus, progressive schools set out to practice an existence based on the ideals of freedom and equality. They were often placed in rural settings and used their natural surroundings for both study and subsistence. Teaching groups were small, and teacher-pupil relations informal and democratic, whilst teaching methods stressed creativity rather than passive book learning. The aim was to free the child from unnecessary restrictions or prejudices and hence prevent repression, and instead to cultivate a balanced, tolerant and free individual. John Aitkenhead wrote of the founding of Kilquhanity House in 1940, 'We were against war,

violence, corporal punishment, uniforms, authoritarianism . . . we were for love, life, nature and freedom.' Ferriere wrote in 1921, 'The New School is above all a boarding school in the country that retains the character of a family and where the personal experience of the child is the basis as well for intellectual education . . . as for moral education through the practice of the principles of self-government.'

It was this atmosphere which first gave rise to the school council. If the child was fitted to take a more responsible and adult part in his own education than was generally the case, then it seemed logical to create some form of council where these principles could be carried out. In some schools this was limited to merely advising on certain school rules, but in some extreme cases like Summerhill and Beacon Hill, it extended to most aspects of running the school. This brief survey does not pretend to give details of all councils in progressive schools, but simply to mention those best known and documented.

One of the early radical progressive schools, which was not a school in the usual sense since it catered for young offenders, was the Little Commonwealth, founded in 1913, and situated in Dorchester, Dorset. It merits a place in any account of the origins of school councils because of the influence it had on more typical progressive schools, and in particular the influence its principle, Homer Lane, had on A. S. Neill, J. H. Simpson, and N. MacNunn. The school was an imitation of the George Junior Republic founded in Detroit in 1895, and was established by one of the Detroit school's masters, Homer Lane, at the invitation of George Montague, later Earl of Sandwich. One of the principles of the Little Commonwealth was that elected pupil representatives made the laws for the community and the rest, including the staff, had to abide by them. The pupils would also act as a disciplinary body to deal with those who did not obey the rules.

This pupil responsibility for law making and law enforcement was followed by A. S. Neill at Summerhill, which was founded in England in 1924, but which had three years of earlier existence in Hellerau near Dresden. The principles behind the foundation of school were that education must concern itself with the instinctive side of the child, that freedom of expression is the best way to avoid repression, that the child is born good, but made evil by the repressive demands of society, and that the chief objective of education is to bring happiness.

Neill believes that a representative school council is out of place and that it is much preferable to have a full school meeting, which he calls a school parliament. He is able to do this because of the small size of Summerhill during most of its existence; at larger schools it would not be such a practical proposition. Thus the whole school from the six year old to the eighteen year old, including the head and his staff, sit on the school parliament. All have the same voting rights, so that the head and staff can easily be outvoted — and often are. Only a very few issues are outside the scope of the parliament such as the appointment and dismissal of staff and the payment of bills. It can deal with all school rules, academic, and curricular matters, punishments of individuals, and the school's domestic arrangements. 'Any trial of self-government', wrote Neill, 'will fail unless it is complete.' The parliament meets weekly, but its form is largely unstructured, since the secretaryship is voluntary, and the chairman is appointed by the previous meeting, and can often be an unsuitable person to control the meeting which can be noisy and disorganised. Neill believes the value of the parliament to be considerable and has said that one weekly meeting is of more value than a week's curriculum of school subjects.

Frensham Heights was founded in 1925 and soon introduced an elaborate system of self-government. A general school meeting took place once a month, with either the head boy or head girl in the chair, and it dealt with every kind of matter connected with school life. It took particular responsibility for the making and revision of school rules, and the control of school societies and organisations, which had to report to the meeting. The meet-

ing also elected all school officials, with the exceptions of head boy and head girl, including counsellors who formed a sort of cabinet, preparing business for the school meeting, and acting in a judicial and disciplinary capacity. By 1962, however, the meeting appears to have lost much of its executive emphasis although it still examines rules (rather than makes them), elects committees, hears society reports, and votes funds to them. 'At least,' writes the head, 'the meeting affords practice in speaking in public, in detecting false or specious arguments, and in the various processes involved in democratic government.'

A more radical approach was adopted at Beacon Hill School, founded in 1927 by Bertrand and Dora Russell. There the school council included every pupil (again it was a small school), all staff, and also other adults on the premises such as the gardener and the cook. (This approach is now called for by many left wing students in universities and also by some pupils in sixth forms.) Community rules were discussed, agreed to by a vote, and were then binding on all. The chairman, a pupil, was elected for a term, and it was his responsibility to call meetings of the council, although any other pupil could ask him to do so. As the school imposed few sanctions on those who disobeyed its rules, a large amount of time was given over at each meeting to try and find rules which people would keep. On one occasion the motion, 'This council disapproves of sloshing as a method of settling disputes' was introduced.

Very few single sex schools came out of the New School movement because co-education was usually one of the features it reckoned to be most worthwhile, and the lack of it a possible factor in child repression. One boys school that was founded, Rencomb College in 1919, is worthy of special notice, since J. H. Simpson, its first headmaster, was a significant pioneer of progressive ideas. The general meeting at Rendcomb (thinly disguised as 'Churnside School' in much of his writing) considered of forty boys between the ages of thirteen and eighteen. Juniors, and others not in the meeting, had facilities to watch proceedings from a gallery. The chairman and secretary were boys, and careful minutes were kept at the meeting which took place each week and lasted on average for about three quarters of an hour. The meeting elected all school officers and committees each term. The committees included a finance committee which aimed at teaching boys how to handle money judiciously, especially larger sums than they were used to. The school provided (this was in the 1930's) 1/5d per boy per week, despite early opposition from governors, and the boys were then responsible to the general meeting for expenditure on such things as games materials and transport. Whereas initially the staff were members of the general meeting, this was later discontinued, so that the boys met on their own. The general meeting also elected a school council of seven which acted as a judicial body.

All the school councils referred to thus far have had executive rather than advisory characteristics. The distinction between these cannot be drawn too sharply, however, and some may disagree with what might be regarded as an artificial division. Nonetheless, these councils had, or have, considerable powers and executive functions. So have some of the councils which follow, but on a smaller scale.

Quaker Schools have made a major contribution to the development of co-educational boarding schools, and to school councils within them. Leighton Park School, Reading, founded in 1890, is a good example. The school council can discuss any subject affecting the life of the school, though it does not have legislative authority. It consists of two members from each form, elected each term in a form meeting, and two representatives from the staff. The headmaster is the president, and a pupil is the secretary; detailed minutes are taken and business is conducted on formal committee lines. The council meets three or four times a term; it appoints members of the union committee, library committee, school magazine committee and school cinema committee. Several committees hold, and are allowed to spend, sums of money.

The library committee has much say in the selection of new books for the library. Committees must report back to the school council, and receive criticism or suggestions from it when appropriate. The council does not make school rules or have any disciplinary authority, however. The school aims to provide a balance between enlightened despotism and democracy.

St. Christopher School, Letchworth, founded in 1918 for 'free development and character building upon individual lines', took care to be quite precise about the authority allowed to the school council. 'It is of the utmost importance', wrote H. Lyn Harris in 1934, 'that in this matter there should be no humbug.' If it is known that the authorities' view must prevail, it is considered much better to make this clear at the beginning to avoid conflict and frustration. The senior school is divided into ten companies, to each of which is attached a member of the staff as adviser, and a senior pupil as sub-adviser. The companies meet several times a week to decide business, and they elect representatives to the school council, of which the advisers and sub-advisers are also members. School business, as opposed to minor company matters, is dealt with at the school council. If motions are passed, they go to a full school meeting for ratification which is presided over by the head boy or head girl. The motion then goes to the school authorities, unless it comes within the sphere of the council's competence. There is a wide range of matters on which the council can take genuine decisions not subject to veto, besides an unlimited field for recommendations. The school council also takes some responsibility for disciplinary matters, and elects, by direct vote, all the school officials. Part of the aim is to train pupils to think for themselves, and to develop a sense of personal responsibility to the community.

Bedales, founded by J. H. Badley in 1893, holds an honoured place in the development of co-educational progressive schools. The school council, however, has not been such a prominent part of the school organisation as in other schools. Bedales aims to allow as much individual freedom as is compatible with life in a community, and the stress is on individual as opposed to collective freedom. The school council is intended to give a training in individual self-discipline, rather than a general practice of self-government. It consists of staff, prefects, and form representatives, and its sphere is legislating on matters affecting school routine. The responsibility for carrying out the rules lies with the prefects, under the direction of the head boy and head girl.

Another school with a long tradition of a school council is King Alfred's School, in North London, founded in 1898. The council, known at different times as the 'Children's Council' or the 'Advisory Council', meets weekly and consists of elected pupil representatives who can discuss but not legislate on, all school problems. All pupils of secondary age can attend meetings in a strangers' gallery. As its name suggests, it is an advisory body with defined responsibilities. In the spheres over which it has most authority, the headmaster tries to avoid using his veto as much as possible, although a regular staff meeting discusses the decisions taken at the council. A. S. Neill was an assistant master at this school between 1918 and 1920, but one of the reasons he left was that he thought the council made a mockery of genuine self-government.

Dartington Hall, founded near Totnes in 1925, has become one of the best known and socially accepted of progressive schools. Although W. B. Curry had doubts about the value and efficiency of school councils, he did introduce the moot system, which is a modified form of self-government. He thought this would be less taxing for the pupils. He began with a 'headmaster's advisory council' which consisted of elected senior pupils who had informal discussions with the head on the running of the school. This developed into a school council with a prepared agenda, and powers given to discuss, amend, and make school rules. Its responsibility and membership were widened to include a larger number of elected senior pupils and elected members of staff. The secretary and chairman

were pupils, and the head was present with the power to intervene and veto if necessary. Before long, this school council was replaced by the 'moot', so called to stress its advisory functions, which had the head as chairman, and allowed all other senior members of the school to attend if they wished. An agenda committee was appointed to draw up each meeting's business, and discussion was confined strictly to this.

The middle school also contains pupils of a secondary age, but they were not given the privileges and responsibilities of the seniors. A pupil committee was set up which could consult with the school authorities, or pass complaints on to them. The school particularly wanted to avoid the situation which can frequently occur whereby juniors feel insecure in a school after considerably increased powers are given to senior pupils. Dartington Hall is an example of a school which was not satisfied with its arrangements for pupil participation, and has made several changes in the means whereby this is achieved.

Two co-educational schools were founded in 1940 after the main era of the pioneering work done by the progressive schools. Wennington School, near Wetherby, founded by K. C. Barnes, included a school council from the outset to satisfy the need that was felt for equality between staff and pupils. However, it gave rise to mistrust between the two sides and to carping criticism on the part of both, so 'it was a relief to everyone when I dissolved the council and declared a benevolent dictatorship until the school should be sufficiently unified by its relationships to make a second attempt.' Barnes put the failure down more to the newness and immaturity of the school rather than faults in the system of school councils. A few years later another attempt was made. Counsellors were elected from both pupils and staff and they met together in a 'senate', which was an advisory body, with an established procedure, which replaced the school council. It could make recommendations on school life but the final authority rested with the head and staff, and this was made clear to participants. It could also appoint school committees, and it was possible for other members of the school to observe from the gallery.

Monkton Wylde School, in Charmouth, Dorset, also founded in 1940, soon established a school meeting. As the name suggests all members of the school are entitled to be present, and a meeting can be called for any day after lunch. The chairman and secretary are elected by the pupils, but anyone can contribute to the agenda. Meetings are often lengthy since the aim is to reach solutions acceptable to all. The meeting elects committees to deal with such matters as rules concerning bicycles, or donations to charity.

Abbotsholme was founded for boys only in 1889 by Cecil Reddie, a pioneer of the New School movement. He set up a traditional prefect system, although the prefects were named 'Reds'. The Reds had to carry out administrative duties, and were regarded as primarily setters of standards rather than junior disciplinarians. In the 1930's C. H. C. Sharp replaced the prefects with a Red's Council, and this has remained, with modifications, until the present time. Today the school has a prefect system and Reds as well, with the two almost merging. A Red is someone who sets a standard of work, service and self-discipline in the upper half of the school. Red-ship is to be regarded as an opportunity for greater service rather than a privileged position. It is not tied to any special posts — a Red may or may not be a prefect. Similarly there will be people who do have posts of responsibility and who are not Reds. They will be expected to have proved themselves in carrying responsibility and in taking the initiative in the wise use of freedom. Their number in the school at any one time is at the discretion of the headmaster, but it does not normally exceed about thirty-five. If a Red is not a prefect then he is usually made a sub-prefect. This means that he is regarded as a tried and responsible person who is under training for the full responsibility and status of a prefect.

The stated purpose of the Reds' Council is to help spread ideas and suggestions about various aspects of school life, not to make

rules or policy. It is intended to make all sections of the school think more about their functions and purposes, and to help them see and understand other people's points of view. It does not normally concern itself with matters of curriculum. Nor does it exist as a forum for criticising individuals or for questioning major policy decisions. It is concerned, though, with a very wide field of social activities where all the members share in the successful running of all the freer aspects of school life. The degree to which the various matters can be discussed in the Reds' Council varies and is determined by the chairman. The council is clearly stated to be consultative and not executive in function.

The Reds' Council consists of the headmaster as chairman, the second master, staff members as invited by the chairman, and all prefects and Reds. Until recently there was also one elected member for each form, but this has been discontinued. It is intended that the remaining members do represent the views of those below the sixth form.

Council meetings are conducted formally. Minutes are taken by a prefect secretary, and speeches from the floor, questions, and resolutions are limited in time. Proper notice of issues to be raised must be given so that the agenda can be drawn up in advance of the meeting. The council can also ask the headmaster for explanations of school policy from time to time. When matters are decided by the council, the decision goes to the headmaster for his consideration. Further discussion or action is often taken by specially appointed small committees, for example of staff, prefects, or those specifically concerned.

The Reds' council has been described as an experiment aimed at associating a greater number of boys with the responsibility of running and improving their school. The stress is very much on its advisory nature and it is made clear that making school policy is not the pupils' province.

Dauntsey's School, founded last century, joined the ranks of the progressive schools after the first world war. A school council was formed in 1919, partly to bring a sense of unity to the school, and partly to help introduce some new experiments. It was in effect an advisory committee comprising elected representatives from each form in the school, and together with the headmaster it discussed most problems concerned with the welfare of the school. It assisted in drawing up the new school rules and regulations; and it helped to see that the rules, made with pupil co-operation, were carried out. Another useful function of the council was to contribute to the different phases of the new experiments at Dauntsey's by giving advice, and helping to get the various schemes accepted and understood by the rest of the school. This avoided the impression that experiments were being arbitrarily imposed from above.

Generally it appears that if girls at progressive schools wished to participate in the various forms of school council, they must attend a co-educational school. Of the five progressive girls schools described in the Modern Schools Handbook of 1934, none had a formally structured school council though some provided means whereby the authorities could be apprised of the girls' views. It seems that in earlier days girls on their own did not require any form of self-government for their education. Possibly girls are generally more conformist and willing to accept authority than boys. It is still surprising, however, that girls schools claiming to be progressive did not set up councils.

An exception to this pattern is Badminton School in Bristol founded in 1858. Here there is a typical school council which has twenty-five elected girl representatives, nine staff, and the headmistress as chairman; in addition, prefects and elected heads of houses hold ex-officio positions. It meets fortnightly, and helps decide on school regulations, discipline, various aspects of routine, and is intended not only to help run the school but also to develop a sense of responsibility in the girls. The head can veto any proposals, but tries to avoid this. The council functions well, and there appears to be no reason why school councils should be found only in boys and co-educational schools.

The transition: some factors influencing the spread of school councils

School councils have not remained the preserve of the progressive schools, since, in the last fifteen years especially, they have been increasingly established in state schools. The example of the progressive schools has been an undoubted factor in this. Many headmasters first imbibed the idea in their younger days from reading the works of such as A. S. Neill and J. H. Simpson, and twenty or so years later had the chance to emulate what they had read. So whilst some progressive schools were modifying their own systems of self-government, in some cases their original forms were being enthusiastically adapted in the state sector.

It is difficult to assess the development of councils in state schools since information on this has never been collated. No national education survey has included an account of school councils, though some have suggested that they be introduced. No knowledge is available on the regional distribution of councils, or whether some local education authorities actively encourage their establishment whilst others oppose them. A far-reaching survey is needed to discover these facts.

There has been a considerable amount of exhortatory literature aimed at encouraging state schools to introduce councils. Two main strands of thought are discernible: one is the acceptance of the idea that a school is a community, a social unit, and that all its participating members should share in its conduct; whilst the other is that new methods such as the introduction of school councils are needed to educate pupils for citizenship in a democratic state.

One of the earliest statements on the school as one social unit with younger and older participants is found in the Spens Report, in the section on the principles of the curriculum. 'The outcome of the changes (in principles underlying the curriculum) thus brought about is that a typical school of the present day is to be regarded not merely as a 'place of learning', but as a social unit or society of a peculiar kind in which the older and younger members, the teachers and the taught, have a common life subject to a constitution to which all in their several ways consenting and co-operating parties, pursuing purposes which though not coincident, are nevertheless correlative. It is of necessity an artificial entity in that it is deliberately created and maintained as a means of bringing to bear upon the young, formative influences deemed to be of high importance either for their own development or for the continued well-being of the community. But it is, or should be, a natural society in so far as the conditions of life within it, particularly those we think of as discipline and order, should enable its members to live on easy terms with one another, the older exercising due influence upon the growth and character of the younger, and the younger having space and freedom for many-sided individual development. In such an 'organisation of childhood', formal learning, the curriculum in the narrower sense of the word, must also retain its central place, but there will be much more — activities of a less formal nature and other activities entirely informal which make equally essential contributions to the life of the society.' It is hardly true that that was the way a typical school was regarded thirty years ago, but it is perhaps a more accurate assessment of the situation today. However, the writers of the report were concerned to make recommendations on the future direction of secondary education, and the social climate described above was what they hoped would develop. It is this social climate that provided the background of the spread of school councils (the report's 'activities of a less formal nature',) from progressive schools into state secondary schools.

The way that staff and pupils become 'co-operating parties' in the life and constitution of the school is developed further in the section of the Spens Report, 'The School as a Society'. The long tradition of giving authority and responsibility to prefects is praised but it is suggested that schools could go further. 'In some schools the experiment has been tried of giving to greater numbers of boys and girls than is permitted by the prefect system in its traditional form, a collective share

in the internal administration of the school. We have had evidence of the success in these experiments in a few schools in which the headmaster has deliberately entrusted to such a larger group of boys powers of action and legislation within a defined sphere, and we think that further experiments of the kind may well be made where circumstances are favourable'. One of the 'defined spheres' suggested is that pupils can help in making school rules. The effect of the Spens Report on the post-war development of secondary education was considerable, and it is probable that it also gives some impetus to the growth of the school councils and other forms of democratic procedures in schools.

The case for a democratic social climate, and for the introduction of school councils, was made more strongly in a report 'Democracy in School Life', published under the auspices of the Association for Education in Citizenship in 1947. The Schools Committee of this body felt it lacked actual evidence of the value of what it proposed, and so launched 'a prolonged ad hoc investigation' of schools, in particular those in both the public and private sector which had pronounced democratic characteristics. The work was done in the period of the intellectual aftermath of the totalitarian regimes of the 1930's and the ways these had used education for political purposes. 'There is', it is recorded in the introduction, 'something fundamentally wrong about the process of catching people young and imposing a set of arbitary doctrines upon them before they are sufficiently mature to think things out for themselves.' Instead it was hoped that democracy in schools and in society would counteract this. The basic underlying idea behind democracy, in the view of the report, is respect for the value of human personality; its characteristic quality is independence; its characteristic virtue, tolerance; and its characteristic principles, freedom of thought and discussion. School councils are to play a part in fostering these characteristics.

The report postulates three types of school in its case for a more democratic system. The first school is described as 'purely organisational'. It has a formal, bureaucratic structure; it is like a factory with people as raw materials capable of being processed; in which human relations are poorly developed. The school is purely utilitarian, and it judges its success by the amount of knowledge imbibed. One of its features is the kudos given to the top academic pupils, and another the lack of attention given to the duller pupils. The atmosphere is authoritarian with the staff and pupils existing in rival camps. Pupils see the role of the school as merley providing the means to a good job, and they are glad when this role is accomplished. The second type of school, the 'happy family' school, although met less often, is a reaction to the factory type. Here, everything is done to build personal relationships, but little else, since the pursuit of friendliness is carried on to the exclusion of other attributes such as scholastic success or community service. The mistake the school makes is to regard happiness as a goal, and not see that it comes primarily as a by-product from self-fulfillment arising from the proper functioning of the school. The third type of school, nearer the ideal, is the 'democratic school', which combines what is good, but rejects what is bad, from the other two types. Here there is a heightened community self-consciousness, because there is a full realisation of the part the school plays in society and the contribution that each member has to make in developing and enriching the life of the school community. Human relations are more complete and based on co-operation and shared responsibilities. It is admitted that this type of school, in a fully developed form, is rarely found as yet.

This analysis of types of school is to say the least questionable but is intended to promote support for a democratic as opposed to a merely friendly school structure. There follows an account of school councils, which stresses their value in helping to develop this type of school. Although many specialist functions of such as the head cannot be shared, there is, it is agreed, a whole area of common ground — like general school activities and organisation, the community's problems of behaviour and discipline — about which all members of

the school are concerned, and it is in such matters that school councils should prove their worth. The information given is an amalgam of the accounts of twenty-three councils visited and studied by the researchers for the Association.

The report also includes recommendations and advice on how to set up a school council, and how to manage the transition period from an authoritarian to a more democratic political system. One point is particularly valuable: that at all costs sham democracy must be avoided. This can take the form of the council's domination by the head or staff, so that pupils' views do not play any major role, or of an unjust weight being given to staff opinion to block the wishes of the majority of the council. The actual powers of the council need clearly stating at its foundation, but it is chiefly the responsibility of the headmaster and staff to prevent the erosion of its legitimate authority. This report, therefore, is one that has more direct bearing on school councils than most, and has had some influence on their post-war formation in secondary schools.

Besides improving the community life of the school, school councils were urged in order to provide training for citizenship. The Association for Education in Citizenship whose publication 'Democracy in School Life' has already been examined has played a major part in this field. So too has the Ministry of Education through the publication of various pamphlets. The Association's first report was issued in 1935, the year of its foundation. Its authors were aware that at the time there was much disillusionment with the efficiency of democracy and that in schools it was necessary 'to cultivate reason and tolerance, whilst combating cynicism and indifference; to foster the steady growth among its citizens of a deep and abiding faith in the justice and rightness of its (i.e. democratic) principles.' A good citizen should have a deep concern for the freedom and good life of his fellows, such knowledge and trained intelligence as will enable him to form sound judgements about the main problems of politics, and the power to appreciate the value of wisdom and integrity in public representatives and a willingness to trust and follow leaders possessing these qualities. 'We believe', they concluded, 'that the first great step towards such a democracy lies in giving far more conscious attention throughout our educational system to the problems of the best methods of educating citizens.'

The Spens Report and 'Democracy in School Life' both reckoned that school councils are amongst the best methods. In 'Citizens Growing Up', published in 1949, this fact was stressed again. '. . . there are countless opportunities in school life for training in co-operation and responsibility, and a school that does not seize all its chances is starvng its own life. An effective prefect system is one — the most traditional. School councils are another, less traditional and still groping for the right opportunities of service. Some school councils, in favourable circumstances, have taken a share in framing and executing the school's rules. Many more have undertaken the school's programme of social service. At one school for instance, a well established school council manages a scheme of part-time help in hospitals, homes, and small shops in the neighbourhood.' It was the view of this report that one essential purpose of education is to nurture the development of the future democratic citizen, and that through setting up school councils, schools could give an adequate training for this particular role.

'Sixth Form Citizens', also published in 1949, described some school councils which, incidentally, were not limited to the most senior forms. Of eighty state schools that were studied, seventeen had school councils. Again the fact that over twenty per cent of the sample had them must not be taken to mean that this was an accurate proportion for the whole country. That figure would be much smaller. The report gave examples of actual councils and how they functioned. For example, in a mixed grammar school a school parliament met twice a term. Members were elected for each form, one boy and one girl, and also included all prefects. Decisions were discussed at the next staff meeting, and implemented if acceptable. There was also machinery

for informing the whole school of why a proposal could not be accepted, if that was the decision of the staff.

It is fair to assume that the reports and books that have been mentioned, and the pressures which give rise to them, were in part responsible for the growth of school councils in state secondary schools. But they were not the only factors; others include the example of the progressive schools; the changed teacher-pupil relationships in many schools; a new emphasis in the teaching at colleges of education; and the present radical political demands.

The growth of school councils can be seen in the context of the change in the whole attitude towards teacher-pupil relationships which has taken place in the last few decades. What pattern of authority a school or a teacher should adopt has always been a vital question in education. Patterns of authority are usually placed on a democratic-autocratic continuum (or dominative-integrative, child-centred-teacher-centred, etc.) with a laissez-faire pattern as a third dimension, though in practice in education this is much less often used. Autocratic leadership may be defined as the leader acting impersonally, punishing deviates, deciding on group tasks or goals and how they should be accomplished, and displaying a commanding attitude. A teacher of this type may possibly be against the introduction of a school council, and would not co-operate with it. A democratic leader acts in a friendly and personal manner, allows the group to help determine goals and the methods for their achievement, and shows a co-operative attitude. This type of teacher might be expected to welcome a school council and endeavour to take a useful part in it. The democratic-autocratic continuum may have limitations in the school situation, but the two general types of teacher and their reaction to school councils were certainly shown in the responses to a staff questionnaire given as part of the writer's enquiry into four councils.

The historic assumption was that autocratic forms of teacher-pupil relationship are inevitable in the school situation. Waller reckoned that sub-ordination and autocratic leadership were a condition of learning and student achievement, and that there was a need for 'social distance' between teacher and taught for effective teaching to be carried out. In the school situation, 'teacher and pupil confront each other with attitudes from which the underlying hostility can never be altogether removed.' As previously mentioned, Waller maintained that every school is based on a despotic political structure, and that self-government is not real but merely a mask. Hostility between teacher and pupils as the vital factor in the classroom, and the consequent need for autocratic relationships has also been argued more recently by Webb. He uses the analogy of a sergeant and his drill squad in his analysis of the secondary modern school. Pupils and staff have an aversion to each other which makes co-operation in a school council out of place. Again Fiedler, using a laboratory situation, having hoped to find that co-operative, democratic methods were more effacious, in fact found the leader must behave differently from the rest of the group, and keep a 'psychological distance' from it. This was especially true in a 'role-orientated' situation, which a school council would most likely be.

Thus it was assumed traditionally, and is still assumed by many today, that autocratic leadership and relationships were necessary and more effective in the school situation, and that school councils had no place. Norwood wrote, 'The business of a school is to work, and to get on with its life without bothering about whys and wherefores, abstract justice, and the democratic principle.' His view on the notion of school councils and democracy in school life was, 'I can only say that they seem to me to be a mere idling waste of time.'

There followed many studies, however, which questioned the value of authoritarian leadership and maintained that democratic leadership is preferable on the counts of both productivity and morale. Lippett and White examined the behaviour of youth groups in democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire situ-

ations, and found that in the democratic situation, the work was done efficiently, the motivation was strong, there was more 'group-mindedness', and friendly relationships. This method was seen to be superior to the autocratic and laissez-faire methods. Although this piece of research has been quite heavily criticised, it made a considerable impact on the educational profession in both America and Britain. Anderson and Brewer made studies of teachers' classroom personalities putting teachers on a dominative-integrative continuum. Through studying different categories of teacher-pupil relations, and pupils' responses to the different types of teacher, they concluded that integrative leadership was superior again on both counts of productivity and morale. Both these studies offer too global an interpretation of teacher-pupil relationships, and it is not really realistic to polarize teachers at both ends of the continuum, since their behaviour is often between the two, and inconsistent as well. Nonetheless, it was the climate of opinion fostered by these researches which was in part responsible for the origins and growth of student councils in America, and has had an effect in this country as well.

It is this climate that has been partly responsible for the introduction of school councils into state secondary schools. Many studies show that this democratic social climate is accepted and welcomed by staff and pupils. Robertson, in his supervisors' evaluation of good teachers, and Taylor, in his children's evaluations of the characteristics of a good teacher, both found an emphasis placed on qualities such as insight into dealing with others, and warm personal relationships rather than efficient teaching or an ability to keep discipline. The many researches and views referred to are open to much criticism: their answers are too generalised and not relevant to the specific situation, there has been a lack of methodological rigour and inadequate research design, and the operational definitions of leadership have lacked precision. Nonetheless, they have had a marked effect on teachers and teaching, and have helped to create the climate in which school councils are seen to be desirable and necessary.

It would not be correct to state that whereas once relationships in schools were basically authoritarian, they are now completely democratic. In secondary schools of all types attitudes of staff and pupils are often still autocratic and traditional. Nonetheless there has been a marked change. Some schools which were authoritarian are now democratic; others which were authoritarian are now less so. Once it was assumed the pupil was at school solely to learn, and to reach certain academic standards, now the role of education is interpreted far more widely. Pupils have been taught to question the interpretation of long-held assumptions in religion, science, politics and the like, and many have then transferred their attention to the school organisation itself. Many staff and heads have welcomed this, and been prepared to learn from the particular insights of their pupils. Staff too have interpreted their role as teachers more widely; they see themselves as being more than mere dispensers of academic knowledge, and now include in the perception of their role such things as character-training and a concern for the total well-being of the pupil. This has led to friendlier relationships within the classroom, and an extension of relationships outside it, on the games field, performing extra-curricular activities, or taking pupils on school holidays. Not surprisingly all this has produced an atmosphere in which pupils and staff can combine in school councils to talk over school problems without either side feeling there is undue interference from the other.

Another factor in this development is the changed emphasis of teaching in colleges of education and similar institutions which are in the forefront of urging more democratic school relationships. This is evident from both the courses provided and the textbooks recommended for study. Good examples of this change are seen in the work of, for example, A. G. Hughes, Elizabeth Richardson, F. Whitehead or A. K. C. Ottoway. Hughes in his lectures to college of education students, assumes that the democratic ideal is the one which schools should aim at, and expounds its meaning and the best ways to achieve it. Although this, and many similar books are

concerned primarily with establishing democratic social climates, rather than democracy through the structure of the school, the former has helped to give rise to the latter.

Finally, the most recent agency for the introduction of school councils has been, and is, the demands of pupils themselves: perhaps the first fruits of democratic social climates in schools. These demands are fairly widespread, but are voiced most articulately by radical organisations such as the League of Young Liberals. Pupils are observing university students' demands for an effective voice in their affairs and are beginning to emulate them.

The Schools Action Union is an example of pupils combining specifically to establish councils. This group represents chiefly comprehensive and grammar schools. They want councils to discuss the use of corporal punishment, and alleged lack of co-operation between pupils and staff. Their first secretary, a seventeen year old sixth former, said, 'I think pupils should have more responsibility for the curriculum, and take a lot of responsibility for the running of the school.' The group thinks the present examination system is absurd, and should not be sole judge of suitability for university entrance; also that it is very unfair that schools should expect prefects to fulfill functions which ought to be carried out by a school council, composed of representatives from every age group in the secondary school. Hence today there are a wide number of reasons for the steady growth in the number of schools establishing councils throughout the country.

To be continued in November issue of NEW ERA

Our November issue will contain reviews and articles left over from this issue as well as interesting new copy. New contributions are always welcome. So are suggestions.

An Experiment in Team Teaching

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The term team teaching is one of the most misunderstood terms used in education today. It lends itself to an almost infinite variety of individual interpretations, as well as a great many misconceptions. That it is a generic term embracing a wide variety of organisational patterns which may vary from school to school is shown by the history of team teaching in schools in the U.S.A. during the past two decades. It may involve teaching large groups of up to 120 pupils, classes of 30-40, and smaller groups of anything from 4-12 pupils. Arrangements must also be made for a great deal of individual study. Teaching teams may vary in size from 3 to 8 teachers, with ancillary help in the form of specialist teachers, students and clerical aides. The age span of pupils is dependent on the school and the size of the group concerned.

As far as the authors of this article are concerned the definition of team teaching accepted and used as the basis of experiment in their schools, is that of Shaplin in the book **Team Teaching**, edited by Shaplin and Olds, published in the U.S.A. in 1964. Here it is broadly described as a type of instructional organisation involving teaching personnel and the pupils assigned to them, in which two or more teachers are given responsibility, working together, for all or a significant part of the instruction of the same group of pupils. Members of the team are responsible for planning, executing and evaluating the work which they had their pupils undertake. Another American writer, Bean, brings a little life to this somewhat technical definition by adding:—

'The heart of the concept of team teaching lies not in details of structure and organisation, but more in the essential spirit of cooperative planning, constant collaboration, close unity, unrestrained communication and sincere sharing.'

Wide as the above definitions of team teaching may be, they preclude any informal arrangement between teachers to exchange classes, or to co-operate in project work, where although there may be joint planning, each teacher considers her own class to be her responsibility alone. Neither does it include the sort of departmental planning and specialisation found in secondary schools, since the organisation for team teaching implies that teachers must continue to work together and to be responsible for the teaching of the whole group, although those members of the team with special expertise would contribute more at the planning stage. The essential point of the organisation is that all the pupils concerned should be treated as one unit, to be grouped and re-grouped in the most suitable way for the various activities planned, and that the teacher should see herself as contributing to a team effort, rather than as having an individual responsibility. 'Teachers will plan together, assign appropriate tasks to individual team members, join together in evaluation of instruction, share information about pupils, hold discussions based upon common observations of teaching and effects of teaching.' (Shaplin).

Some educationists seem to think that team teaching could be the answer to many of our educational ills, from the shortage of teachers to the closed classroom door syndrome. Perhaps its best points are included in a list of some of its aims.

These may be summarised as follows:—

1. To make the best use of the talents of professional teachers.

2. To put an end to professional isolation through the pooling of experience and the sharing of preparation and evaluation.

3. To encourage the teacher through joint discussion to re-examine many of the basic issues in respect of curriculum and method.

4. To help young teachers fresh from college, who in the usual form of school organisation would be left much more to themselves.

5. To facilitate the building of a time table which gives pupils more opportunity to follow their own interests, engage in small group work and discussion, learn how to find out for themselves and acquire the habit and desire to do so.

It is not implied that educational goals consistent with the above cannot be reached within a more traditional organisation, but team teaching may facilitate the attainment of such goals.

To test some of these theories, two experiments detailed below were carried out last session in Southwood Primary School, Glenrothes, and Dunearn Primary School, Kirkcaldy. Although the organisations were superficially similar there were considerable differences in the way the challenge was met by the two teams. Similarities lay in the numbers of pupils and teachers engaged, the amount of ancillary help available, and in the space available. Each school had in addition to the three classrooms, a workroom with bench and tools, a well-equipped library, and other quiet corners where individual study could be done. The only collaboration between the two schools was in a prior discussion between the headmasters of the schools, when agreement was reached on the definition of team teaching given above, and this was to be used as the basis of both organisations. It was early decided in both schools by the teaching teams that the experiment be confined to one major project in Environmental Studies.

The Southwood Experiment

The team consisted of three teachers, including the deputy headteacher who acted as team leader. Visiting teachers of drama and

music were assigned to the team for one afternoon each week and a teaching auxiliary was able to give some help by typing assignment cards. etc. One hundred and twelve pupils in classes primary 6 and 7 took part in the experiment which began in February, 1969.

The team met on many occasions during the autumn term of 1968 to make preparations. These meetings were held after school hours and on certain occasions during the day when visiting teachers and students were in the school and were able to look after the classes for which the team members were normally responsible.

As no one in the team had any experience of team teaching it was considered advisable not to attempt too much and the experiment was limited to a project on Ships and the Sea. All the possibilities were explored and a list of topics was made. When this was done the team examined all the suitable books in the school central library and the classroom libraries. Much time was spent doing this but it proved to be time well spent and the task was lightened to some extent as there were already lists of classroom books and a modified Dewey system was used to classify books in the central library. Additional books were obtained from the county library. One hundred and thirty four non-fiction books and 27 books of related fiction were set aside for the project.[1] As time went on these books were supplemented by literature obtained from various sources. Pupils also brought their own books to school.

As there were 112 pupils it was decided to form 15 groups with 7 or 8 pupils in each group. Each group would initially tackle one topic relating to the project. The following fifteen topics were chosen:—

1. Early Adventures of the Sea.
2. Famous Men of the Sea.
3. The Vikings.
4. Slave Trade and Transportation.
5. Lighthouses and Lightships.
6. British Explorers.
7. Trade Routes round the World.
8. Famous Ships.
9. History of Ships.
10. Settlements and Colonies.
11. History of the Royal Navy.
12. Safety at Sea.
13. Foreign Explorers.
14. Port of Glasgow.
15. Ship Building.

An assignment card with 12 starter questions was prepared for each topic.[1] One member of the team prepared for each card four questions of a geographical nature; another drew up four questions leading to some study of history, and the third member devised four questions under the heading of language arts to give the group the opportunity to write stories, plays, poems, etc.

A time-table was drawn up and 1½ hours each day for four days each week were set aside for work on the assignment cards. In addition two afternoons were to be spent on activities. The two visiting teachers would be able to help on these occasions. Six activities were arranged — drama, art, private reading, craft, music and needlework. As far as possible the children were given a choice so that at first they took part in two activities for several weeks. It was not possible to give every pupil his first or second choice at the beginning of the term but groups were changed later in the term and eventually all pupils took part in most activities. The team met with the visiting teachers and planned these activities in some detail.

Before the experiment began the pupils were in three home classrooms. An empty classroom nearby could also be used. The gymnasium was available for drama work and the assembly hall could be used for giving talks and showing films to the total group of 112 pupils. Of the three classrooms already being used, one was equipped for geographical study, one for the study of history and the third one for language arts. The empty room contained all the books selected for the project and a varied collection of handwork materials. There was also a work-bench and tools.

When all the preparations were made the team took all the pupils to the gymn. The nature of the project had already been explained to them. They were told to form themselves into groups of 7 or 8 of their own choice with one stipulation that each group must contain at least two pupils from each of the three classes. This ensured some kind of vertical grouping within the age range 10-12 years. The teachers were amazed at the speed with which the children formed these groups. Each group chose its own leader. Fifteen groups were formed and five groups were put in each of the three classrooms. Each group of five was given an ensign colour — Red Ensign, Blue Ensign and White Ensign.

When the project began, all classroom doors were left wide open and groups moved to the appropriate room to carry out their studies. Children were given much more freedom than usual but they did accept this responsibility and there were no disciplinary problems. Teachers made themselves available to give help where the need was greatest.

Reference books were studied, pupils wrote up their accounts and their work was displayed on classroom walls and in large books specially prepared. They wrote many letters to various organisations and individuals and received many interesting replies. During the Language Arts periods they prepared lecturettes which were given to all pupils in the assembly hall; they wrote plays which were tried out during drama time, they wrote interviews with people of the past and these interviews were put on tape and played back to other groups; they wrote poems and imaginative stories. Small discussion groups were formed by taking one pupil from each of six groups. These discussion groups met in a small room without supervision and their discussion was taped.

Let me now give you more specific details of the work we attempted under different headings.

Drama

Pupils took part in various dramatic activities and the following plays were written by groups of children or individuals:—

1. Mid-Day Murder — A story of the Vikings.
2. The Twilight Drums.
3. Sir Patrick Spens.
4. Destruction of the Roses.
5. Grace Darling.
6. Press Gang.
7. Smugglers.
8. Saved by a Lifeboat.

Interviews with people in history, e.g. Columbus and Nelson, were put on tape and 'broadcast' to other pupils. Speeches were also prepared and put on tape, e.g. A Speech against Slavery.

Art

A list of titles was displayed in the classroom as a guide but pupils could use their own idea to illustrate their topic. Most paintings were done by individuals but larger paintings were done by small groups. One large mural was painted depicting sea and ships.

Music

The groups choosing this activity learned sea shanties and learned to play on recorders and chime bars.

Craft

Many models of ships through the ages.

Fishing villages and harbours.

Model of a naval base.

Model of lighthouse (Height 6ft.) with flashing light, and cut away sections showing various rooms with equipment.

Model of Lord Nelson — life size.

Model of Grangemouth Docks.

Viking figure in felt.

World Map (12′ x 9′) showing routes of explorers

Private Reading

Fiction — stories having some connection with the sea.

Needlecraft

Historical costumes were cut from felt and embroidered.

Visitors to the School

Lieutenant and Petty Officer R.N. (Films and talk).

Merchant Seaman (Film slides and talk).

Lt/Cmdr. Deakon and four of the crew of H.M.S. Fife.

Helicopter Pilot — Air Sea Rescue (Film and talk).

Officer from W.R.N.S.

Nursing Sister from Q.A.I.M.N.S.

School Visits

Broughty Ferry — To see lifeboat and whaling exhibition at the Castle Museum.

Pittenweem — To see harbour, fishing boats and fish market.

The project commenced at the beginning of February 1969 and continued until the end of June 1969. No one expected the project to last so long but the children were so enthusiastic that new topics had to be prepared in mid April. The following twelve topics were suggested:—

1. Fishing.
2. Disaster at Sea.
3. Ports of the Forth.
4. Great Sea Highways.
5. Whaling.
6. Fighting at Sea.
7. Monsters of the Deep.
8. Buoyancy and Flotation.
9. Fish Shop and Fish Market.
10. Mysteries of the Sea.
11. Piracy.
12. Produce of the Sea.

Only twelve new topics were introduced as three groups wanted to tackle topics on the first list which they had missed and which caught their interest. Starter questions were not drawn up for this second list of topics, partly because of the time factor but also because it was thought that it might be interesting to see how much responsibility pupils could accept in pursuit of their own study, having had some experience with the previous topics. This idea was only partly successful but all topics were tackled after teachers had discussed the possibilities with each group. At this stage, too, individuals were allowed to follow their own line of study when something caught their interest. One girl, for instance, made a study of the life of Queen Elizabeth I and wrote her own illustrated account.

Before the project began a meeting of the parents of the pupils involved was called. The experiment was explained to them and the aims fully discussed. At the end of the term an exhibition of the pupils' work was arranged for parents. This was again followed by a talk and discussion.

The Dunearn Experiment

Dunearn School began their experiment with a number of advantages over Southwood. The roll of the school was smaller so classrooms were available for extra activities. Two students from Moray House College of Education were available full-time for a ten-week period, and the services of a third student could be called on as necessary from a neighbouring school, on a day to day basis. As in the case of Southwood the three top classes in the school making up P.6 and P.7 were all in the hands of capable and experienced teachers who were prepared to take part in the experiment. The total number of pupils concerned was 106. As well as the three teachers and three students in the teaching team, there was a part-time teaching auxiliary to deal with the clerical work involved.

The first meeting to begin disucussion of the project was held during the last week of November, 1968, and in the knowledge that the main factor in the failure of other experiments in team teaching elsewhere was the lack of sufficient planning and preparation, it was decided then that the experiment proper be delayed until the beginning of the summer term in 1969 and that it should be carried out over the ensuing ten weeks. The intermediate time was to be used in planning and preparation. The headmaster and teaching team were able to have the necessary meetings by making use of visiting teachers, a remedial teacher and the infants' mistress to take classes at suitable times.

It was at first suggested that both Language Arts and Environmental Studies be planned for in the experiment, but after some discussion it was agreed that the experiment be treated as a major project in Environmental Studies and, as turned out in actual fact, to rely on the planned integration of subjects to cover creative and descriptive writing and other aspects of Language Arts. This decision was probably influenced by the fact that over the years the project work in this school has had a geographical, historical or scientific bias.

After much discussion it was finally settled that the central theme of the project be **Sand** and the team got down to working out the various topics which could stem from this centre of interest and to develop them in detail under the following headings:—

Art
Written or Spoken English
Handwork
Science including Nature Study
Mathematics
Geography
History
Music
Visits
Films
Programmed Learning

The theme proved unexpectedly full of local interest. Visits to the sea-shore were obviously relevant, as were industrial applications in a neighbouring glass factory, sand quarry and brick-works. Flow charts were prepared by individual team members and eventually the following nine topics arising from the central theme were agreed on:—

1. Sand beach and shore-life on the surface to Low Water Mark.
2. Sand beach shore-life below the surface.
3. Sand beach as recreational area.
4. Sand deserts — wild life.
5. Sand deserts — exploration.
6. Sand deserts — inhabitants and activities.
7. Sandstone — formation, erosion and use.
8. Industrial and domestic uses of sand.
9. Use of sand in concrete, cement and bricklaying.

Each of the three teachers now undertook to break down three of these topics, and to prepare ten assignment cards on each to act as guides for different groups of pupils. This was probably the most formidable part of the undertaking as literally weeks were taken up in this part of the preparation.

It was felt that different abilities were required to tackle each topic, so these were now given an order of difficulty and the next step of arranging the pupils in working groups was started. It was decided to use horizontal grouping. Each teacher began by grading her class on an A-D scale of ability, these groups were then combined from the different classes and from these 24 groups were made each containing either four or five pupils of the same sex and of the same potential ability. These groups were made up so that no more than two pupils in any group came from the same class.

This was with a view to reporting back at classroom level.

Topics were now allocated to groups so that pupils would be working with others of similar ability on a topic suitable to that level. This may appear somewhat artificial, but it was felt that within the topic set there was ample freedom for individual development. The mixing of topics and classes ensured that pupils were unaware of any grading.

Other less arduous preparations followed, and these continued until the project was launched at the beginning of the summer term. The music aspect, as one of the team members was particularly talented musically, was discussed at length, and a selection of suitable music made under the headings of (a) songs to be learned and sung and (b) music for listening to.

Excursions and visits were planned and arranged, e.g. to a local glass works, to different kinds of beaches, to a sand quarry and brick works, and to the local museum.

Guest speakers were approached. Among these were the curator of the local museum,

a librarian who had just returned from a round-the-world trip, and the publicity officer for the county.

Lessons to be taught by individual teachers were discussed and jointly prepared. Materials for art and handwork were obtained in sufficient quantity and stored.

Books were selected and borrowed from the county library to augment those from the school's own fairly extensive collection.[1]

Films and filmstrips were ordered for specific dates.

The final important item in the preparation was time-tabling. It was decided that approximately seven hours per week should be given to the project with additional time as necessary for outside visits.

Monday 3-4 p.m.
The whole group was taken as a unit for music, and for reporting back by representatives of each of nine groups, one for each topic. This was done using a microphone, two minutes being allowed to each of the speakers, who were encouraged to speak without notes. Reporting in this way enabled everyone to maintain some idea of the project as a whole. This idea was taken further as things progressed, when two or three groups at a time were given freedom to circulate for half an hour at a time amongst the rest, to ask questions and to discuss with others what they were doing.

Tuesday 2-4 p.m.
Talks from guest speakers or group work in classrooms, workrooms, or library, supervised by teachers and students.

Wednesday 2-4 p.m.
Visits, or group work as on Tuesday.

Thursday
Films or filmstrips, and follow-up work oral and written, supervised by students. This allowed the teachers to meet to discuss and assess progress and to prepare the programme for the following week.

Once begun, the project continued for ten weeks. Two meetings with parents were held. The first, during the preparatory period, was conducted by the headteacher and deputy to give some idea of what was being attempted. The second, during the last week of the project was attended by a large number of parents who met the staff involved, were given an account of the project, heard songs, saw original plays and dances, and visited classrooms and library.

Observations and Afterthoughts

Although in both schools use was made of large group teaching in that the whole group was taken as a unit for starter lessons, music, and referral back by group representatives, there is some dubiety as to the value of large group lessons. With such a group feedback from pupils is small. The teacher must rely on hitting the mark with regard to material and presentation. In consequence the lesson requires the most detailed and careful preparation and must include a dramatic element, i.e. it must be a big production. Nor, as is so often put forward, does the use of a large group release teachers for other work. They are required for preparation of any such lesson and need to be present to cope with follow-up work. There is also involved a degree of risk of failure in presentation.

It is possible to allow brighter pupils to pursue individual study but it is difficult to hold discussions with small groups of 10-12 pupils. This is unfortunate as much rewarding work might be possible if such groups could be formed occasionally.

Everyone considered the work of the pupils was of a higher standard than usual, and interest was maintained throughout. This may be a reflection of (a) intensive and detailed preparation, and (b) a novelty factor from being engaged in something new.

Some social aspects appealed to the pupils, e.g. working with older and more capable pupils with whom normally they would not have been associating. There were some positive examples of older children helping the younger and less able.

No one felt that team teaching is any answer to staff shortages, rather the opposite.

Teachers found the work more demanding than with normal techniques, but it provided a challenge to the routine work and gave it a great boost. As one member of the team commented:—

'Since this particular project covered only part of the normal school work we had a feeling that the rest of our work lacked the impetus we felt in the project.'

Because of the time needed by the team to prepare for a team teaching project, it is almost impossible, without extra help, to prepare for a new project while one is still in progress.

There has been a growth of mutual understanding and professional respect among those teachers concerned, and all agree on the great advantages accruing from joint planning and sharing of ideas and viewpoints.

In both schools many hours were spent by members of the teams preparing the work before the experiment began. Without this preparation both projects would undoubtedly have lost their impetus. The fact that pupils kept their enthusiasm for such a long time was undoubtedly due to the intensive preparation. The experiment did bring home to us very forcibly just how much preparation and planning is required to be done by the teacher in the primary school if modern methods are to succeed. At the moment teachers are locked in a tight schedule and there is no room to manoeuvre during the school day. Perhaps some day when the surplus teachers do materialise it may be possible to have more teachers than classes so that there can be some flexibility.

Is the present situation of having one teacher and forty pupils shut up in a 'box' for most of the day still valid in 1970? Can we still expect all primary teachers to be experts in the whole field of primary education? How can we use the talents of individual teachers for the benefit of the whole school? Do pupils at the primary stage really require the security of having one teacher all the time? Incidentally, we saw little evidence of this.

Not every teacher could fit into a team and we do not think that team teaching is the only answer to some of our problems. It did give the opportunity to a small group of teachers to get together and discuss some of the aims of primary education and how they could be carried out. Joint preparation, discussion and evaluation were really worthwhile, but to find the time for such valuable work is very difficult under the present system.

As a result of the two experiments, we have probably raised more questions than we have found solutions. This is not necessarily a bad thing and does lead us to believe that the time has come to take a fresh look at the organisation of the primary school.

1 Book-list and specimen assignment cards may be obtained from the Editors.

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Building for team teaching in primary schools

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Schools which work on a team teaching basis require a different provision from those organised in traditional ways. Teachers in these schools see little place for the traditional rows of desks facing the teacher, although there may be some formal teaching. They see a very real need for a wide range of functional areas which are fairly closely related to each other. Much of the

work in these schools is on an individual basis and so many places for individual work need to be provided — tables, work tops, booths, carrels and bays. Some work will take place in small groups with or without a teacher and these need a number of small spaces. Larger groups may want to watch a film or television programme or to work at dance or drama and these groups need spaces suitable for these activities. Teachers in a team will certainly need storage space for their own books and materials and a place to keep their records and files as well as somewhere to discuss and plan and prepare work. The children too will need storage space for their books and materials.

It is for these needs that we have recently been attempting to design schools. We started with the view that it was not possible to have all these things and classrooms too and have planned on the basis of a series of functional areas for linked groups of eighty or a hundred and twenty children and their teachers. The present building regulations allow us to build about 1,800 sq. ft. for eighty children. Within this space we aim to provide for almost all the activities the children may wish to pursue, with the exception of physical activities, which require a large clear space.

One of the major problems of designing this kind of school is that there is as yet, very little experience on which we can build. We have the experience of teachers who are working in teams in existing buildings, some of which lend themselves to this kind of organisation. But the existing organisations have been planned within their buildings, taking into account the ways in which the building helps or hinders. Schools working in buildings designed for team teaching may work very differently.

It has therefore been necessary to look for the likely growing points in existing practice and to make a number of assumptions.

The first assumption is that there is a fundamental division between clean activities like reading and writing and messy ones such as painting and work with clay. These must be kept apart. There is a similar division between noisy activities like music and quiet ones. This suggests that the pattern of the building should be one where reading and writing belong at one extreme of the working space and most of the work with materials at the other. Subjects like mathematics and science and environmental studies occupy a place between, sometimes requiring books and writing materials and at other times requiring facilities for working with materials. It is also very necessary to think a good deal about the acoustic properties of the building, and to place sound absorbent materials strategically.

At one end of a work area, we are planning a book area, often carpeted and curtained and attractively furnished, with a domestic type of furniture. This usually adjoins a larger space with tables and chairs or stools where all kinds of quiet activities can take place. Sometimes this space is partly dining area where furniture is permanently in place. By siting the dining area in this way, we avoid having space and furniture which is used for only a couple of hours each day at the most. It is, of course, important to provide enough working space without the dining areas, but schools with dining areas in suitable places welcome the opportunity to use them during the rest of the day.

At the other extreme of the working area, we are providing facilities for work with materials. At present this work will be mainly in art and craft, but we hope that we shall gradually see the beginnings of technology developing. In this area we try to provide special facilities for work with clay, such as a kiln and clay storage. Other craft facilities are to some extent interchangeable and by providing sinks, work top, trolleys, shelving and other storage, we hope to make a good general purpose area for this work.

Both book and craft areas may be situated between two team areas and be shared by both, because unless the teams are large, it can be difficult to provide as fully as the older children need.

A rather different aspect of work with materials is cooking. This is not only worth studying in its own right, but is also a valuable way of helping children to read with understanding and weigh and measure. We are now building cooking facilities into the working space in new schools. We try to make a kitchen corner, where children can work without disturbance from passers by. Here we put a sink, a stove, which, if possible, is built into a bench run, together with shelves for pans and materials and perhaps adjacent space where children may sit to eat what they have cooked and entertain their friends.

Science and mathematics both need certain special facilities. Both may need water and science, in particular, will need a heat source or sources. Both need a good deal of work top and open shelving for equipment and materials.

Some environmental study will be part of mathematics and science, some part of work with materials and some aspects of the work will demand reading and writing. There is a real need in this work, as well as in many others, to provide adequately for display, which may be a starting point or a finishing point for a piece of work. It is, in fact, extremely difficult to provide as much display space as a school needs. The ideal building probably has walls of pinboard. We need space to display specimens of all kinds, to show loan collections from the museum and from private owners as well as space for children's work.

The nature study aspect of science has particular requirements. There are many reasons why it is good for children to keep animals, to grow plants and to make observations about plants and animals. This needs a space suitable for this kind of activity, probably an outdoor under cover space with water easily available.

The outdoor space around the schol needs to be regarded as an integral part of the total learning environment. This requirement is not adequately fulfilled by the football pitch and area of asphalt, which is all that was formerly provided, although these are also desirable. All indoor work spaces, need adjacent outdoor spaces, some of which are under cover and some open. These allow for the indoor activities to extend outside for as much of the year as possible. The outdoor spaces also need to provide for such things as climbing and jumping.

Technology will not only be part of the curriculum of schools in the future, but will also affect the way in which learning takes place. It is necessary to plan so that an increasing amount of use may be made of audio visual media, and of individual and small group learning with tapes and transparencies and other mechanical aids. It is difficult to provide adequately for this within the present building regulations, but we are attempting to provide bays and booths for small groups and individuals, to provide a space where a group can work with a tape recorder and junction box, using a learning programme of some kind, as well as providing for the use of radio and television.

Each team area needs to contain some small rooms where a teacher can work with a group of children. One of these rooms in each area may be equipped for work with audio visual equipment or for television. It is also necessary to provide the teachers in a team with a base room which will almost certainly double as a teaching area for small groups. These rooms will need storage for teachers' books and materials and filing for children's records. Work top or tables will provide space for teachers or children to work or a school may choose to furnish so that a teacher can deal with a larger group of children seated on a carpeted floor.

The hall poses problems in these schools, because of the variety of its functions. If there were more space available it would probably be better to provide a fairly roughly finished space for physical activity and another smaller, well finished space for dance and drama and perhaps using it also for seeing films or television with large groups. The present school hall has to serve both these purposes and also serve as a meeting place for the whole school or for parents'

meetings. It would be more satisfactory if we could make some provision for physical education in relation to work areas, so that children could get additional practice during the day where necessary.

These buildings are the first of their kind. The one certain thing is that we shall need to modify them when we actually get them on the ground and start using them. We can only plan in the light of observed growing points in existing schools.

The World Education Fellowship and the Montessori Society in England

International Conference

The Educational Environment — Approches to Primary Education Summary of the Plenary Sessions

Sheila Dawson

Friday, 24th July, 1970
Before Tea. Dr Henderson, the Chairman, welcomed everybody to the conference, and Professor Lauwerys, Chairman of the WEF, introduced Miss Joan Lestor, M.P.

Miss Lestor expressed her thanks for being asked to open the Conference, which she was glad to do as there was an international flavour to it. She felt that the growing problem of illiteracy in the world needed great attention, and that there were indications that, once offered the chance, people were eager for education. The more fortunate nations should help the developing countries to provide it.

She stressed the importance of pre-school and primary education, pointing out that it was a vital element in helping the disadvantaged child to make up leeway. Finally, she said that race relations was one of the main problems in the world, and the only hope for peaceful and harmonious living together lay in education.

The Chairman thanked Miss Lestor, and introduced the members on the platform. Messages of goodwill were given, from Unesco by Miss Rushworth, and from the National Union of Teachers by Mr Jones, Senior Vice President. The Chairman also read letters from Lord Felsted, the Australian WEF, the Pakistan Montessori Society and Mrs Beatrice Ensor. He then underlined the fact that fellowship was the key-word of the Conference, and that problems should be studied in a global context.

Dr Ruth Frøyland Nielsen gave the first lecture. She gave a broad survey of education from the beginning of the century, presenting the scene through the eyes of a child who had lived through it. At the beginning of the century it was felt that one should not think for oneself, the pupil should always receive and do what he was told. Then, in some circles, the ideas of the innovators, like Montessori and Frobel, began to make headway. These, above all, placed confidence in the child. Many people, however, were too afraid to accept them and even now, much education is mere 'schooling and instruction.'

Dr Nielsen gave an example of how three young people had managed to get an experimental school started in which the ideals of the New Education could be practised. The main points of these ideals were the confidence in, and understanding of, the nature and capacities of children, the emphasis on creative activities, social development and basic trust. Many problems still remain, but the way to solution is to say, with Anna Sethne, 'Give up? Never!'

Question time. Questions were asked about the hostility and boredom now apparent in some sectors of education. The answers were varied, but on the whole it was felt that while teacher/pupil relations were good in primary schools, these problems existed in parts of the secondary sector, perhaps due to the fact that pupils could not relate school to life outside.

After Tea. International Review. Part 1.
Mrs Wallbank, Principal of the Gate House School, spotlighted the main highlights of Dr.

Montessori's work. Montessori's methods were based on intrinsic motivation; the training of the perceptual process was achieved by didactic materials and 'practical life activities'. There was a structured environment with freedom of choice of activities which developed initiative, resourcefulness, independence and self-discipline. The fundamentals of Montessori materials are that they should provide indirect preparation for concepts to be developed later, that they should be specifically suited to the needs of the child at the moment, and that any required repetition should be possible, carrying the possibility of self-correction.

Montessori stressed the vital importance of the balance of nature and of 'Love as man's Cosmic Task'. Given the right environment to be free to follow his inner drives, the child will develop the higher obedience that comes from independent thinking. The environment must be that of the child's own time, which means, nowadays, the introduction of the technological age into the nursery. There must also be the opportunity for imaginative play. She was a believer in vertical grouping because of the added social interaction and advantages gained in seeing relationships within the whole. At puberty, however, she felt that children should live in a community of their own in a natural setting. She thought meditation was essential, and as a preparation for this introduced the Silence Game. The teacher must thoroughly understand his own nature and values in order to help the child to achieve his cosmic task, which, if fully realised, could solve all political and economic problems.

Miss Mabel Denny gave a resume of Froebel's work and ideas, and examined the present position, relating Unesco's aims to Frobel's ideals.

Froebel was a mystic, searching for 'inner connections' and the essential unity of God and man. He was a disciple of Pestalozzi, and founded his own school. Realising the importance of the early years, he set up a Kindergarten to educate children from three to seven years. His ideas spread, and in 1893 an official statement in England instructed teachers of this age group to develop children's spontaneuos interests and look for all round development of body, mind and spirit.

The child was to educate himself through his own activity and his interests were to be harnessed and developed in such a way that the inner unity and connectedness in all things would be shown to him. To achieve this there must be a complete and loving acceptance of **every** child, irrespective of abilities and attractions.

Froebel, having observed children, stated that Play was **the** educational medium: the child learns through play, come to terms with himself, becomes objective. The 'Gifts' which he devised to encourage play have been discarded, but present-day Nurseries and Infant schools utilise many of the ideas evolved from these 'Gifts.'

Although few schools call themselves Froebellian, the spirit of his work is evident in many of them, and in the courses arranged by the DES. It is present in the design of the newer schools, in the expectation of cooperation between parents and teachers, in the stress on the importance of each individual child, in the equipment in schools, and in the emphasis on learning by practical experience. All real educators base their attitudes on the maxim of the Director General of Unesco, which also summarises Froebel's ideal, that there should be 'A continual acquisition of knowledge and a ceaseless reexamination of ideas.

After Supper: International Review. Part 2

Professor Borghi gave details of some research undertaken in Italy, into prejudice. It was conducted in three different communities, and the results gave some support to the hypothesis that there was a correlation between lack of communication and prejudice. In the community with the highest rate of prejudice there was little communication with the outside world, little knowledge about world affairs and little participation in social and political life. Education can help by pro-

ducing children with open, not dogmatic, minds on the intellectual side and by encouraging the expression of feelings and ideas in groups leading to the formation of common ideas, and by showing the connections between life in the school, in the community and in the world. But the schools cannot by themselves solve the problem.

Dr. Mae O'Brien spoke about the work of Peter Petersen and the Jena plan. She said that one of the real problems was how to help people communicate; so many people and children just 'sat it out' knowing it would end soon. Peter Petersen believed children needed to learn to communicate, and that there was a need for a dynamic leader to produce teachers. He was also interested in evaluation, critical thinking about what is going on, which requires evidence, not opinion, as a basis.

Mme. Michel, Principal, Ecole Decroly, gave an account of the work in the Decroly School. Dr. Decroly founded it in 1907, and it now caters for 610 boys and girls from 3-18 years. There is a great deal of teacher/parent co-operation. The children are given tasks and responsibilities, and the curriculum is based upon their experiences and on the four 'Centres of Interest' propounded by Dr. Decroly, which are Food, Protection against Inclement Weather, Struggle against Enemies and Work. The starting point in any of these programmes is observation, either inside the classroom or out, and this leads naturally to the skills of reading, writing and so on. The oldest pupils help in the school organisation. The children work individually or in groups and there are no marks or classification, except in the last three years. At the end of their schooling, the children are open-minded, unprejudiced, eager to face life and ready for its complications.

M. Bertrand talked of Freinet and his ideal of linking the life of school to life outside. Freinet believed that individual development grew from the child's experiences and interests, so the school must be centred on the lives and personalities of the children. The main techniques to implement Freinet's ideas are the printing press, free composition and the student library. The first is used to reproduce the work, which is then exchanged with another school, thus broadening horizons. Free composition is to encourage self-expression and, because it is evaluated and criticised by the other children, it leads to self-correction and self-criticism. The student library of booklets is available for research and children's contributions are added from time to time. To learn morality, a child must live it. Discovery and activity involve the pupils and give them practical experience of the necessity of co-operation and independent thinking. There can be no marks when the aim is for the child to express his own personality, vitality and value.

Question time. There were remarks about marks and about the difficulties of putting philosophical ideas into practice.

Mario Montessori said that there was too much concentration on the later stages of education and neglect of the beginnings. He felt that confidence in the NEF had been shaken after their prophecy, before 1939, that there would be no more wars, but if believers had faith, and did not fight over different philosophies, the NEF would show the world the way to salvation.

Saturday, 25th July.
After Breakfast. Miss Roberts spoke of the great changes in education in recent years. There were the teacher's new awareness of the child's development, children were encouraged to study how to learn and to be aware of their thought processes. Some people divided the 'feeling and knowing' aspects of education, but this contradicted the concept of interaction of the individual and the environment. The teacher's responsibility for educational decisions is now very great, and in spite of the recognition that it is necessary for children to have concrete experiences, and that concepts should be based on understanding, there is a great demand for programmed learning because the reward is instantaneous and the possibility of failure minimal, but what about the quality of thinking? Professor Skinner claims that this con-

ditioning could make education 100% efficient. But the teachers would also have to be conditioned, and who would do that? Research shows that the quality of the teacher is all-important, especially in the creative domain. The creative and cognitive aspects should be linked to permit full development. Participation in workshops and discussion groups was a shared experience and should help to clarify thinking.

Question time. There was a discussion about rewards, in which the main feeling emerged that satisfaction in the task was an intrinsic reward. **Mario Montessori** asked how we **dared** reward a child, our task was to help him to spontaneous discovery of and for himself.

Sunday, 26th July.
Before Lunch. International Forum.
M. Biscompte gave information about the WEF Conference in Brussels in 1971

Question. What are the problems of education and how can they be solved?

This provoked a lively discussion. The answers included the needs, to develop flexible and imaginative thinking, to develop social relationships, to develop authentic, autonomous people, for basic trust.

In answer to a question, it was agreed that good home/school relationships were vital, but that spheres of responsibility must also be acknowledged.

Other problems raised included the urgent need to consider social problems, with teachers leading the action, the fact that the young were not given a true picture of the world, and the need to stress the value of human beings.

One of the younger members of the audience stressed the need to find out what life was like outside school, and it was pointed out, in support, that there was a great difference between students who went straight to college from school and those who worked for a year first.

The members of the Forum gave their opinons. Miss Roberts stressed the need to listen, Mrs Wallbank confirmed this, M. Bertrand urged Freinet's ideal of co-operation at all levels, and Miss Brearley felt that the world was for everyone not for any one section of the population.

The session closed with a farewell from Mario Montessori. He stressed the point that the WEF should lead the world in demanding a newer and deeper understanding of Man, his needs for development and survival. He illustrated how children can reach a depth of understanding of the order of Creation through their own investigations and discoveries.

After Lunch. The Closing Session
Discussion Group Reports
Mr Killick. Group 1 discussed the broad aim of education that the child should grow to be free to choose, that everyone concerned in education should maintain a critical approach to values, and the concepts of education as an integral function of society.

Professor Everett. Group 2 was concerned about the organisation of the discussion groups, the freedom to learn and experiment, and suggestions for the organisation of future conferences.

Miss Hermansson. Group 3 discussed the quality of teachers, adult-child relationships, community participation in schools and the needs of handicapped and immigrant children.

Dr. Hemming. Group 4's main interests were the structure and limits of freedom, the common ground between the great innovators, and the aims of education other than the full development of individuals.

Mr Kenworthy. Group 5 had discussed the progress made in the last 50 years, the training of teachers and community/school relationships.

This sparked off a number of questions and suggestions about teacher training. Some of

these were that students should have more observation time, that tutors should give more practical advice and that the schools were failing to integrate students into their ways.

Dr. Nielsen. Group 6 discussed the hostility and aggression of children, concluding it was based on fear, and the causes of these fears.

Dr. Weaver. Group 7's main concerns were curriculum changes and how to accomplish them and whether moral behaviour can be 'discovered.'

Miss Low. Group 8 discussed communication and definition difficulties, and the concern felt about some of the pre-school apparatus now on the market.

Miss Buckley. Group 9's main points of discussion were school relationships, flexible ideas and awareness of oneself and others.

Chairman's Summary

Dr. Henderson said that he had retained four general impressions of the main areas of concern. 1) There had been a global perspective, 2) the needs of the disadvantaged child, 3) The similarity of the ideas of the great innovators, and 4) the contemporary tendencies of a) operant conditioning and b) development of quality in thinking. Particular points included the consideration of the approach to God, sex and politics with children; the boredom, hostility and prejudice apparent in schools; the Montessorian approach to love and self-correction; the Froebellian approach to play; and the recent developments in educational theory, with special reference to rewards.

The great need at conferences was to discuss things which 'your heart clings to and confides in'. From this would come the deeper understanding of oneself and others that can lead educators to be the determinants rather than the results of society.

Dr. Henderson then thanked all those who had by their untiring efforts made the conference possible and so enjoyable.

Lady Bazley, on behalf of the Montessori Society, thanked Dr. Henderson for taking the chair.

Editorial

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EDITORIAL NOTES

Conferences—our own and everyone elses—are now over and the holidays and vacations are ending and we face the start of a new term and a new session. With the second inset of "World Studies" as a bonus we greet our readers and wish them interesting experiment for 1970/71.

At the York Conference it was my privilege to visit Minsfield High School and Community College. It made a tremendous impression. The headmaster and the staff informed me that they had closed for a holiday for the first time in two years. They had allowed the school and the community activities to grow so that, as Mr Braley (the counsellor and guidance expert) put it, "We have to time table the cleaning. It's as simple as that."

On this last Friday in July when they had closed there was in progress an arts festival. Tucked in a corner was a children's film show. There were people coming and going everywhere. The youth leader dropped in and opened the canteen for a while. The headmaster happened to be in and told us something about the school. The youth tutor was also around. The whole district and the staff were coming very willingly to school and the Carnegie Hall was alive. We hope they can be persuaded to write about their work for New Era. Meeting them and their community together with the discovery of a discotheque in a Saxon cellar in East Coker where we were seeking Ham stone and paying homage to T. S. Eliot, helped make my holiday.

"Keeping the rhythm in their dancing
As in their living in the living Seasons."

'Residential Life with Children'

Christopher Beedell.
Library of Social Work.
Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1970.
30/- (paperback 15/-).

Christopher Beedell has attempted to present a rationale for residential social work, and in this he is to be commended. Despite a proliferation of literature on many aspects of the residential task, there is still a great need for this field to be examined and for its aims and functions to be consolidated into a basic philosophy. This book sets out to remedy this deficiency, and Beedell has presented his arguments as a natural progression; by investigating the needs in the early chapters, following with a discussion of the role of the worker and the institution.

The chapters on provision for children's needs are especially valuable, and the sections on parenting, acceptance and nurturing are extremely worthy of consideration. Psycho-social problems are explained in terms easily understood by the worker, and effects on children's emotional development through group interaction and staff intervention are carefully explored.

In defining the residential worker's task, he takes an incisive view of the responsibility: regarding the task of a unit 'in broad terms as rehabilitating and enabling'; and the social structure of the unit as one within which 'there is the possibility of fairly open communication between all members of it' and where 'there is some recognition of the worker's responsibility **for** the unit as well as **in it'.** The ensuing paragraphs on how the unit can achieve its objectives are particularly worthy of note.

The chapter on Problems of Residential Work deals competently with a number of facets of the task that are of supreme importance in a fast developing service. It also provides a subtle manual of the changing demands of child care, with concomitant implications of the high quality of professional practice that will be required to meet these demands. Finally, the Appendix gives a concise but most explicit statement of types of provision that exist for children and young persons. This should do much to remedy the sketchy knowledge, that supposedly well-informed people seem to have, of the range and variety of residential establishments and their special areas of responsibility.

This book makes a valuable contribution to a fund of knowledge, as yet very small, through which residential work practice can be conceptualised. One cannot say it is an easy book to read because, in parts, the writing is reminiscent of the complicated style used by Richard Balburnie in an earlier work on a similar topic. Furthermore, there are occasional passages of note-like 'listing' that interject with a somewhat disconcertingly staccato effect, although it could be argued that their subject matter has significance and is thus accentuated.

With the Children and Young Persons Act (1969) in early stages of implementation, and the anxieties that are being voiced about its ramifications, Beedell has made a timely offering. His book deserves the attention of the professional social worker, and particularly of those in the residential ambit. It is recommended also to those people serving on committees that are responsible for shaping the policies of institutions that provide for children in the public care.

George E. Maggs.

Pupil & Teacher

An introduction to educational psychology — James Maxwell, M.A., B.Ed. Principal Lecturer in Psychology Moray House College of Education, Edinburgh.
Published by Harrup 1969. Price 30s.

This book which should be not only in the Staff Section of the School Library, but in the hands of every Head of Department so that every teacher could read it at least once, but preferably time and time again. It is not that the book will revolutionise the technique of the teacher or suddenly overnight give him. a new means of classroom control but it will clarify his understanding of what educational psychology is all about, break down some of the prejudices which circulate among teachers concerning psychologists, give him a healthy respect for the scientific methodology, while at the same time through a clinical approach to personality itself introduce him to developmental psychology and emotional maladjustment.

He begins by showing how the teachers and the psychologist's approach to learning differ. He has a rare ability of picking out of a mass of academic research, the bits and pieces of practical value to the classroom teacher. Having summarised in simple for classical conditional and linked it with concept learning, principle learning and problem solving he gives his balanced judgement on behaviouristic theory, 'it has never attracted favourable attention from teachers. Possibly it is considered too mechanical . . .' yet he goes on to say that of all approaches to the interpretation of learning 'probably the behaviourist theory holds most promise'. He enlivens his text just at the right moment with precisely relevant yet fascinating experiments such as Coghill's into the maturation of the behaviour of salamander embryos, and we begin to see that reading and handwriting are really very complex tasks of co-ordination and that perspective in drawing is a maturational development. Although recognising the contributions of Piaget, Bruner and others to our interception of children's behaviour he is not blind to the inadequacies both of evidence and interpretion. He advises the teacher to be cautious and not sold on these complex theories. But he shows the contributions the psychologist can make to such topics as reading readiness, late developers, motivation, learning techniques and programmed learning.

Even in such difficult chapters as Attending, Remembering and Forgetting, he stimulates us by interesting neurological experiments on cats on the one hand or by getting us to learn pi to thirteen decimal places by a mnemonic rhyme on the other!

So to chapters on Thinking, Measurement in Education and Intelligence. It is salutary for teachers to be reminded that there is a good deal of confusion both of definition and operation in the concept of intelligence, although attempts to clear this up have been made by the Canadian Hebb and the British psychologist Vernon. I well remember the reaction of relief on a Sixth Former when told that regarding his I.Q. at least my finding was that he was above the 95th percentile. He had approached me originally for testing as he had suffered quite a crippling intellectual inferiority over the primary school labelling of 'I.Q. 98'. He then said to me 'previously in maths I have never dared say I didn't understand because I thought I was below normal'.

For me, an educational counsellor as well as a psychologist, I was particularly absorbed with the chapters on Personality, Personality Development and Handicapped Children. In a condensed and readable form he summarises Freud's interpretation of personality, the scientific approach particularly of Cattell and Eysenck,

and of (at last!) Carl Roger's Non-Directive Therapy (a title which is a little dated as Roger's now terms it client-centred). It is quite a puzzle (although I have my theories!) why Rogers, until very recently has been ignored in this country. I introduced an educational psychologist a few years ago to Rogers and she was thrilled by his writings. She wrote to him and asked him for the address of such a group in England. He replied 'Ask me about Japan, South Africa, West Germany or the Netherlands and I can put you in touch, but England . . . there isn't one'.

Educational counsellors should buy this book if only for the last Chapter on Handicapped Children, with its sub-headings Who are handicapped? Who are normal? Children who are vunerable and children at risk, What is maladjustment? and so on.

In 265 pages and for 30/- James Maxwell gives an excellent coverage of a wide field often in difficult areas of academic and clincal psychology. At this ground level, his book should be required reading for any teacher or school counsellor.

Fred Roberts.

'The Integrated Day in the Primary School'

Mary Brown and Norman Precious.

'Family Grouping in the Primary School'

Lorna Ridgway and Irene Lawton.

'Teaching by Topics'

Peter Rance.

All published by Ward Lock Educational at 15s. each (Paperback).

Ward Lock have recently re-published in paperback form three most useful books concerned with primary schools. Two of these, 'The Integrated Day in the Primary School' by Brown and Precious and 'Family Grouping in the Primary School' by Ridgway and Lawton, develop ideas which are closely interlocked. The first suggests that the 'integrated day' works best in a 'vertically grouped' school and the second advocates an 'integrated day' as the means of best exploiting 'vertical grouping'.

Put simply, the integrated day means that the class has a minimal timetable, that the children work in small groups or individually for most of the time, so that at any moment there are likely to be many different activities going on in (and around) the classroom with probably no separating of subjects. Vertical or Family Grouping puts children of more than one year-group together in one class. Since the work of the children in such a class needs to be considered individually, or at most in small groups, the resulting organisation will inevitably have many similarities with that working an integrated day. Both books will be of great value to Primary School teachers who are still wondering whether to reorganise their classes along these lines and considering how to set about it.

Mary Brown and Norman Precious are Heads of Church Hill Infant and Junior Schools, in Leicestershire, and they write with infectious enthusiasm of what they and their staffs have done in their schools. (How did they find the time to write the book?). Starting with the assumption that each child will develop at his own pace and in his way, they set out, with the encouragement of their local authority, to create the richest possible environment to foster this individual development. The excitement of their enterprise is communicated through their writing and the practicality and the integrity of their ideas will undoubtedly move other teachers to make similar efforts.

The social advantaged of Family Grouping are rightly stressed by Lorna Ridgway and Irene Lawton in their book, which, despite its revised title, is almost solely concerned with the Infant School. Where misgivings about this form of organisation exist they are usually in the area of intellectual or academic achievement. The book faces this difficulty honestly, and, by not making extravagent claims, will reassure those teachers who are yet undecided about the wisdom of adopting these methods. Nevertheless, some questions still remain unanswered.

In the end, the success of all educational methods depends upon the quality of the teachers who implement them. The book on 'Family Grouping' emphasises the value of the child's remaining with the same teacher for two or three years. The authors are aware of the possibility of personal antipathy and exceptionally allow transfers to be made between classes on this account. However, the authors do seem to ignore the likelihood that not all the teachers on the staff of a school will be near paragons; that it would be grossly unfair to closet a group of children for two or three years with a barely adequate teacher. Even in less extreme cases, many children will be seen to develop unexpectedly when they meet a personality in a new teacher to whom they just happen to respond. There is much to be said for arranging that children come into contact with a number of teachers on their way through the school.

The books both hint at arrangements which would allow team teaching. Perhaps this development would give children the possibility for at least part of the day to approach members of staff other than their own teacher. No doubt Ward Lock will shortly oblige us with an account of such an experiment which might, given the right people, offer the advantages of the methods outlined by both pairs of authors without this drawback.

It is the strength of the ideas that they are so flexible and capable of development. The books provide starting points for many trains of thought. For example, Brown and Precious comment at one stage, 'Children are not always virtuous', but both books seem to work on the assumption that they are always industrious. Do we all in fact produce our best work without a certain tension? Perhaps we should try to establish an optimum sense of urgency rather than the totally relaxed atmosphere which seems to be the aim of the authors.

It is the essence of the teaching methods advocated here that the full and happy use of the present is the best preparation for the future. This is not in dispute, but the impression grows that these authors believe that if the teacher provides a rich environment the child will choose wisely the work or play best suited for his own development. Indeed, 'The Integrated Day' quotes with approval from the Ministry of Education 'Handbook of Suggestions' of 1938, 'Where a child has reason to experiment in a suitable environment, a number of ideas occur spontaneously without formal teaching and without difficulty.' One wonders if all the necessary ideas would occur in this way. Some educationalists view with concern a tendency to develop courses which are no more than a series of more or less happy experiences, almost haphazardly arising. Perhaps it is more economical of effort, time and resources to ensure that a well designed progression underlies the activities which the children are encouraged to undertake.

Certainly Peter Rance in his book, 'Teaching by Topics' believes in a carefully structured course. He sets out with great deliberation his ideas for developing the required skills for the best exploitation of this method

of learning. Although experienced teachers may find the book so thorough as to be a shade tedious, many students in training will be encouraged by its attention to detail to be as painstaking in their own preparation and they will find in it a wealth of really practical ideas.

G. M. Bravery.

'Religions of the World'

D. E. Harding

'Religion and Ethics in Schools'

David Tribe

Both these books are clearly written, and both could be quite useful in schools — if used as something to quarrel with, rather than something for the children to soak up. Mr Harding's book is not overtly polemic, and contains a very lucid and helpful summary of the major religions: it is less good on philosophy of religion, in such chapters as 'Why study religions?' and 'Religion and Science'. Mr Tribe's 24-page pamphlet is a polemic against indoctrination, suggesting the substitution of moral education for religious instruction in schools.

I don't think much can be achieved in this field unless and until teachers get clearer about what religion is, and what criteria we can reasonably use for assessing its merits (if any). Quite a lot of philosophers have written about this*, but it doesn't seem to have penetrated very far. Mr Harding is for religion and writes things like '. . . that total Mystery, the Universe', 'a Nothing that's **aware** of itself as Nothing, and as Everything!' (his italics and capital letters): he thinks that scientists have to have faith in the uniformity of nature, and than man has an Inner Self. Mr Tribe writes 'The Bishop of Woolwich sums up: 'God as we have been led to posit him is intellectually superflous, is emotionally dispensable, is morally intolerable'. This is an episcopal way of saying that traditional Christianity is untrue, unnecessary and outrageous'. Both seem to suppose that it's **obvious** what religion is (and there fore obvious whether or not we need it). But it's not obvious.

Certainly part of what religion is, perhaps the crucial part, has something to do with a metaphysical outlook (this is something that Mr Harding sees but Mr Tribe doesn't, though Mr Harding doesn't seem aware of the problems presented by the whole notion of a metaphysic). How does one assess the merits of metaphysical outlooks, and how does one deal with metaphysical outlooks in relation to children? These are the interesting questions. They are questions for philosophers and psychologists. Frankly, until we reach some sort of agreed criteria for evaluating religious and other metaphysical outlooks, I can't think how anyone has the nerve to take sides. Mr Tribe makes some telling points against religious education as often practised, and Mr Harding at the end of his book rather belatedly admits that he is partisan. But both beg far too many questions. The trouble is that they're not just academic questions: of course religion is **important.** But how? What job is it supposed to do? Teachers might do worse than forget about their own and other people's religion, and try to see just what job it **does** do for children they teach.

*E.g. New Essays in Philosophical Theology, S.C.M., ed. A. Flew and A. Mackintyre.
Philosophy and Religion, O.U.P., John Wilson
Paradox and Discovery, Blackwell's, John Wisdom.

John Wilson.

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James Hemming.

Who's Who?

G. M. Bravery became Head of a village school after teaching in London Primary Schools and in the Grammar school of a country town. He later became Head of a larger primary school where his involvement in the Nuffield Primary Mathematics Project and the development of Teachers' Centres led to his becoming a Teacher Adviser in East Sussex. He is now a Senior Lecturer at Brighton College of Education.

Michael Naish
— educated at Queen Mary's Grammar School for Boys, Basingstoke, and University College, London.
— first degree 1958, followed by two years research on the geography of the Hampshire Downs in the eighteenth century for M.A.
— took P.G.C.E. at the University of London Institute of Education, 1960-61.
— taught in London Grammar and Comprehensive schools, 1961-68.
— Lecturer in Education with Special Reference to the Teaching of Geography from 1968, at University of London Institute of Education.

John Chapman
— read History at St. Edmund Hall, Oxford.
— was Senior History Master at Woodhouse Grove School, Bradford, until 1969.
— took a Master's degree in Education at the University of Bradford, which included research into the role of School Councils in secondary education.
— since 1969 Research Officer to the Bloxham Project Research Unit which is based in Oxford and is enquiring into the communication of Christian ideas and values in English boarding schools.

George Maggs has been a youth leader and the superintendent of a children's reception centre with a training bias. He has just completed a course at the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne where he submitted a thesis on student training and supervision in social work.

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Recent Efforts to Foster the application of Technology to Education in the United States

Findings of a research trip

Ingeborg Assmann

Today, the stage is set for a revolution in education that will make terms such as grades, lectures, blackboards, etc. soon outdated. The new terminology will include terms such as decision models, instructional agents, computer assisted instruction multimedia approach and the like. In the basic sense, the new educational technology demands a complete change in the conceptional framework of education. Based upon the advances in automation we must seriously analyse the question if man is really the best educational agent to teach.

The new technical multimedia approach has man made one media of instruction among others.

The instructional planning in the computer-oriented educational systems will require interdisciplinary teamwork. It rests upon the premise that the application of electronic data processing to education will improve the quality of education and support conceptual and individualized learning. The U.S. Office of Education has supported research on a variety of media in a ten year 44 million dollar experiment. The effectiveness of educational technology has been demonstrated in sciences and mathematics as well as in medicine, engineering or even in the humanities. New learning experiences can be provided without restriction to location, time or frequency of use.

But no educational technology can be effective without the development of a high quality curriculum and distribution systems. The development of a prototype system that demonstrates the cost-effectiveness ratio and organizes research findings into workable project that can be used as a model and can be turned over to others is a serious effort of the USOE.

Without such a model, educational technology can not approach its potential. Research on the educational uses of computers must be adopted and utilised. Many areas where technology offers the potential for educational advances must be sufficiently demonstrated.

This program, called 'A Computer Utility for Educational Systems'' CUES, is to give detailed specification of the required hardware system as well as about the actual costs/benefit ratio. It can be anticipated that private industry will replicate the CUES model. Instructional computer services could be brought to 90% of the total school population if the CUES model would be located in about 30 different areas. Educationists have appreciated the initiative of the USOE. Educational technology has developed so quickly that a need for a systems approach is an urgent requirement. As John Gardner said, 'the pieces of an educational revolution are lying around, unassembled'. A systematic treatment that considers all media in its relation to other elements, that will also embody the research results of the behaviorial science of learning that will give a complete view of the educational process is the far reaching goal of all those that know about their responsibility for a functional school for the Seventies. There are many reservations on the application of technology to education; there are notions about technology 'dehumanizing' education, but there is the strong attitude of the federal government to end the inflexibility of the present system and the piecemeal fashion in which, if all, the technical media is employed.

The Commission on Instructional Technology has delivered to the US Officer of Education the most comprehensive study ever made in this field. It initiated a bill in the Senate (by Senator Yarborough) called the Educational Technology Act. It is designed, if passed, to provide the basic requirements for an accelerated introduction of technologa into education. The natural time lag between discovery and widespread innovation is to be considerably shortened. Research has demonstrated many areas where the new technology offers the potential for significant improvements in the educational process. It is now, as Robert

Hutchins puts it, that we must fill the gap in our conceptual development and get rid of our well protected 'received ideas'. Will we?

Teacher Training

D. H. Reading, Lecturer in Education

J. F. Risby
Lecturer in Education and Religious Studies, Kesteven College of Education

PART I

Weaknesses in the present system

1. The irrelevance of the subject matter in the curriculum to the practical teaching situation.

The top priority for those genuinely motivated to teach should be the mechanics of teaching, classroom management, and teaching itself. A large amount of time is devoted in education to academic pursuits in the fields of Psychology, Philosophy, Sociology, History of Education — most of which will never be of any practical value to the teacher. These disciplines need drastic pruning for relevancy. Compulsory following of such courses leads to boredom and dissatisfaction among those students strongly motivated to teaching, and it must be borne in mind that the majority of students are incapable of pursuing these studies to any worthwhile extent. The minority who are must be catered for — having demonstrated a real desire to teach, and (at least potential) ability to do so. Without the experience of the teaching situation such students are unable to benefit fully from the relevant academic studies. Those who intend to teach in a junior or an infant school, or even in the lower reaches of a secondary (middle school) will probably have sufficient knowledge of their main teaching subject(s) on entering college — a knowledge that will no doubt be supplemented by the teaching of that subject and their own interest in it. Ability to teach a wider range of subjects is an essential for these school positions. Main course curriculum must be drastically cut to allow for more time for professional course work — and subject lecturers should be selected with this in mind, as well as academic ability in their subjects.

2. The low failure rate.

Present assessments are completely unrealistic and unrelated to the abilities of the students. They provide little or no incentive to the conscientious and able student, and encourage the minimum of work and intellectual effort. The status of the profession is lowered in public estimation, and in fact. The near certainty of a qualification encourages students to undervalue still more their relatively limited abilities. A high failure rate (we envisualise something in the region of 20-30%) would encourage a large number of applicants; psychological evidence can be quoted to support this contention, apart from the fact that something of value would be known to be at stake.

3. The economic wastage.

A three year course is unnecessarily lengthy, the time mainly dictated by those academic pursuits referred to in section I. Many would-be drop-outs are encouraged to stay the course in order to obtain the inevitable qualification that they have no intention of using — at least, not in the field wherein it was designed to be used. Many of these have turned to the colleges having failed to gain a university place — not with true vocational aspirations. Some will acquire them, many will not. Many female students are lost to the profession through early marriage and subsequent motherhood — or vice-versa — many of whom will never take up, or return to, teaching. The economic wastage of their training can be reduced.

4. Time wastage.

Academic students at Colleges of Education fall far short of University standard, and the leisured procedure of courses at the latter is not essential to the colleges. There is less

need for time to follow-up lectures and seminars and less to be gained from academic societies and conversation, as all students are embarked on a similar career. University atmosphere, ethos and general procedure are probably not suitable, certainly not necessary, for many of the students.

5. Inefficient deployment of resources.

(a) The B. Ed. Degree.

The small number of intending B. Ed. candidates is often catered for as a separate unit after the first year, with consequent uneconomical demands upon the time of staff for the next three years. The fourth year is particularly wasteful in this respect when these students are virtually isolated from the rest of the college. They would benefit far more, and from an earlier stage in their course if they had extra contact with students of other faculties, within a university atmosphere. The system is potentially devisive and analogous to exam. and non-exam. streams in Secondary Modern and Comprehensive Schools — and similar unfortunate results may follow.

(b) Division of Labour.

Education lecturers are expected to conduct seminars and generally tutor students in the four major contributory disciplines — their knowledge of some of these is frequently negligible, whereas they may well be expert in their own field. It would benefit students and staff alike if they were allowed to specialize in that aspect of the curriculum in which they hold qualifications, and without which they would not have attained their present positions. Only by such specialization can a lecturer hope to keep abreast of incoming information and research, and thus have to present less antiquated material to the students. The latter would benefit in addition by coming into contact with a larger proportion of the staff, rather than being assigned to one member for guidance and tuition throughout the three years. They would be less likely to suffer from the varying standards of the lecturers.

There may be no clear division of labour between Main subject departments and the Education department, and frequently no liaison and co-operation with the consequence that many important aspects of education are ignored (e.g. reading?) Main subject departments should accept far more responsibility for methods of teaching their subjects.

(c) Teaching Practice.

Arrangements and general supervision of student accommodation on teaching practice should be an administrative responsibility, not that of the education staff, who are ill qualified and probably too highly paid, to undertake such a time consuming and unspecialised activity. Additional benefits would accrue from the resultant continuity, personal knowledge of lodgings and well kept records.

The present system of a supervisor going out from college to visit students on teaching practice, often in an area at some distance, is wasteful of time and money apart from being inefficient (below).

6. Difficulty of changing course.

The nature of the course provided is too specialized to enable the student who feels himself unsuited to the profession, to change to another branch of higher education with any facility, or to utilise the knowledge he has gained in another sphere. This is another factor that encourages the unsuitable student to persevere with the course and enter a profession for which he has lost any sense of vocation. There is little or no stimulation from or communication with students following non-pedagogic courses. The college presents a closed system and narrow environment.

7. Teaching practice and supervision.

Schools available for teaching practice are too restricted by area and the college has little or no opportunity to be selective. Schools that are obviously unsuitable in many ways are as a consequence used perennially — with sometimes most unfortunate results for the student.

Students are very much at the mercy of the idiosyncracies of the supervisor allotted them, and are often unknown to that supervisor prior to the practice. Work required, standards expected, assistance rendered vary considerably with individual supervisors. Frequently no attempt is made to standardize — above all there is no generally agreed method or standard of assessing the student's ability. Visits to the schools may be as few as two during a term's teaching; the student may or may not be lucky with the few lessons that are observed. No assessment can be adequate on this basis, and one supervisor is not sufficient. Some supervisors have little or no teaching experience; many will not have taught in the particular type of school they are visiting.

Small wonder there is some stress in college school relationships. Schools may look down upon the lecturer — he is too remote from what the business is all about — feel they are being 'used', and that they have no opportunity to benefit from the facilities provided by the college, or to participate in the work that it is trying to do. The schools are in the best position to assess students on practice. Closer co-operation between the schools and the college is a primary essential.

PART II — Proposed Scheme

Selection procedures—

Basic requirements for admission to teacher training course should be five 0-Level passes, including passes in English Language and Mathematics. Emphasis at selection interview should be on strong motivation towards teaching as a career; where this is doubtful, admission should be denied.

Year I — (in college)

This part of the course is intended solely as a practical preparation for teaching. For this reason purely academic or theoretical studies have no place, so academic main subject studies are omitted. (See year III). This practical preparation takes three forms:

(a) School observation.

1. The year should begin with a 2/3 week period of guided observation in selected **primary** schools, with opportunities for child study, teaching method evaluation, organisation of school within the community, school buildings, curriculum assessment, contacts with teachers and parents, teacher/child relationships, and so on. These impressions to be clarified daily by written answers to questionnaires, and informal tutorials with college supervisors and teacher/supervisors within the school. (see year II) The initial period of observation to be a continuous one, in the same school.

2. Observation continued throughout the year by means of regular visits to different types of school: sixth form college, various kinds of comprehensive school, (all-through 11-18; two-tier, etc.) middle school, junior school, infant school, nursery school, grammar school, independent school, boarding school, special school. As far as possible different variations of each basic type to be included, and all students, no matter what age of children they intend to teach, should observe the complete educational range. Such visits normally to take place while the school is in session, including explanatory conversation with the head and/or staff. It is stressed that under both 1 and 2 students should be able to see work with children taking place, and, as the year progresses, that they themselves should increasingly make contact with the children on their visits.

3. The year to conclude with two weeks school experience of group work and teaching by the student, with the desired age range. This two-week teaching practice to be overseen by college and school in partnership, as described in year II, after which the assessment of the student's attainment in year I is reached. These periods in school should amount, in all, to about one quarter of the year's course.

As assessment will not be made until the end of the summer term, so vocation grants will be available for those who are failed. A min-

ority of failures may be able to repeat the first year.

(b) Practical Activities within college.

1. Every college of education should make provision for continuous contacts with children to be a regular part of its timetable. This may be done by siting the college on a campus where schools also have their place, or, if this is not possible, classrooms should be provided on the college premises to which groups of children are regularly brought from neighbouring schools.

2. This will make possible more detailed work of the kind already taking place on school outside visits: study of individual children with particular abilities or problems, use of varying kinds of teaching methods, experience of building relationships and developing communication techniques, with particular emphasis on basic teaching and reading, writing and maths. Every possible chance should be given to the students to get to know children of all ages.

3. Situations for discussion should be created, or re-created, by the use of C.C.T.V., tape recorders, and films. The use of audio-visual and technical aids in the classroom should be taught to each student by handling the actual equipment. Complete knowledge of available aids and expertise in handling technical aids are essential. Emphasis should be on practical demonstrations and experiments in the professional courses described in section (c) below.

(c) Basic knowledge for teaching.

1. There should be professional courses **in every subject;** each course to be compulsory for all students. Each course should supply the information about the subject necessary for teaching it in a primary school or to a first or second year secondary school level, and give detailed descriptions and demonstrations of teaching methods — the students to take active part.

2. There should be study of child development — what we know of their limitations and abilities at various stages, with direct reference to the classroom situation.

3. There should be courses on: school management and classroom organisation, discipline, basic accounts, blackboard technique, writing, first-aid, extra-curricular activities, including duties, and the situation of the teacher in the light of the 1944 act, with explanation of legal limitations and responsibilities. In essence, there should be ample provision of all the information needed for the teacher to cope adequately with any classroom situation which could arise.

This year will, without doubt, be demanding, though it should also be stimulating and relevant at every point. In order that all the necessary preparation shall be given, normal college hours should be increased to something closer to industrial hours, both in the length of the working day, and days worked per year. (College teaching staff will not be overburdened, however—increase in work during year I is partly compensated for by reduced responsibilities during year II.

Assessment of teaching ability and potential will be made by the college as a result of the total year's work. The method of assessment is to be determined by the college and related university, but a failure rate of 10% to 15% is envisaged as normal.

Year II (teaching)

This will be full-time teaching in a selected school within the college's area (if possible). The school to be selected by the college staff in the light of its general suitability as an active element in teacher training.

The student is to be paid a salary for this year, one increment below the present starting figure for non-graduate teachers.

During this year the student is under advisory supervision, carried out by: (i) teaching supervisor(s) within the school. (Such supervisors, after a volunteering and selection pro-

cess, to be trained by a short course in the summer holidays. They should receive an increment for this work); (ii) a college supervisor, from among the college education staff; each college supervisor to be responsible for all the students within a general area. He will visit this area for about a week at a time, entering the schools for consecutive days, which thus can be further away from the college than the present system allows. The minimum duties of this supervisor should be laid down (i.e. the number of visits to be made), and college main subject staff should be available as consultant if required.

The stress in both kinds of supervision should be on constructive criticism, advice, and support, with at least weekly discussions between the student and the teacher-supervisor.

Assessment should be at the end of the year on the student's teaching abilities, his qualities as a person, and his relationship with pupils and colleagues. The assessment grade should be agreed between the school and the college, again, a 10% — 15% failure rate will be normal.

If the student is successful in passing his year I and year II assessment, he will receive an ungraded teaching certificate. He then has a choice: to continue teaching, as a qualified non-graduate teacher, at his present or any other school; or, to return to college for year III.

Year III (in college)

For those students who return (and who will then revert to grant-aid), there will be a theoretical and academic course, to supplement year I.

It will consist of 50% education (constituent elements as at present, History, Philosophy, Psychology, Sociology), and 50% Main Subject(s). It will, in fact, contain much of the material at present contained in the three-year course, with overall supervision of students in the education course by lecturers according to their particular interests and qualifications.

As this year is self-contained, and because of the reduction of numbers compared with the first year intake, places on this year's course will be available for serving teachers.

At the end of the year, assessment by the college/university selection method. A student who passes receives a graded certificate, and those who pass at a high enough standard may proceed to the year IV course and the B. Ed. degree.

Year IV (at university)

For this year at college students will become in every sense, university students, and will be under the auspices of the University Institute of Education. They will cease to be the responsibility of the College.

Students who obtain a graded certificate at the end of the third year will be allowed two increments of salary for that year.

Some Conclusions

It will already be clear to some extent, how the initial weaknesses will be overcome by means of the proposed scheme. However, some explanation is necessary, which follow below.

We believe that the course should be regarded, in the first place, as a preparation for teaching, and not as an intellectual discipline. Students should enter college with a positive motivation towards teaching children; this must be strengthened by the orientation of the first year course. If a student is not suited to teaching, this should become obvious to him as quickly as possible — in his own interest as much as in the interests of society, and the efficiency of the system. Emphasis on practicalities, with a full time year of teaching early in the course should reveal this. We believe that all students who happily and successfully complete the revised 2nd year programme will be in no doubt of their teaching vocation.

This is also in line with educational theory and practice. Teaching an intellectual disci-

pline to those who lack the corresponding ability and experience is unrewarding and futile. After year II students will be able to supply the experience which will enable them, if they desire, to proceed to year III with real benefit. Moreover those who continue with their studies in year III do so of their own choice, which implies strong motivation, especially as they revert from a salary to a grant for this year.

Herein is the justification for eliminating academic main course work during the first year. We make two further related assumptions—

1. That students will have the necessary intellectual background, especially from VI form work to enable them to teach successfully in Primary and the lower forms of Secondary Schools. Selection of students for college should take this into consideration — we believe at least one A-Level pass should be regarded as normal for those who will teach in Secondary Schools.

2. That the first year of the course will minimise the optional student — choice elements which do exist in many colleges, but which we preserve in Year II when they are more likely to be used effectively.

It is envisaged that, though students will make a provisional choice of age and range specialisation when they enter college, this choice will not be made until the beginning of the Summer Term of year I. **All** students will make their preliminary observation in primary schools, because of the importance for education and child understanding, but the teaching practice at the end of year I should always be in the same school as Year II.

The suggested failure rates are tentative — they could rise to 40% or fall to 10% in certain circumstances. The quoted figures are merely indicative of our view that a teaching qualification should represent a meaningful achievement. Assessment methods can be as flexible as at present, and adapted to college policies.

A realistic policy for teacher training must bear in mind economic demands. The proposed system would cut down expenditure in the following ways:

1. By reduction of the basic course to two years. Although the students will be paid a salary during the 2nd year — they will be earning this by teaching full-time.

2. Those who are unsuited or who find themselves unsuitable for the profession will be revealed during the first two years, with realistic opportunities provided for an alternative career. Thus one year's grant, at most, will have been expended. The number of students in the third optional year will be reduced, and the money saved make possible in-service training as an integral part of the third year course.

3. Wastage due to early marriage will be reduced in several ways:

(a) those who marry during years I and II will have been grant supported for one year only;

(b) those who are contemplating marriage by the end of year II will be unlikely to return to college for year III;

(c) those who choose to continue their studies in year III (plus year IV) will be strongly motivated to postpone marriage in the interest of their career.

There is little question that the needs of students in a college of education differ widely. Some benefit from choice, freedom of time, and a largely unstructured situation. Others certainly initially find choice difficult, if not impossible, and an unstructured situation increases pressures and anxieties. Both needs are not under the proposed system, year I (structured) contrasting with year II (greater academic freedom). This plan has at least two advantages: (a) Students returning for year III are intellectually more likely to be able to benefit from the freer atmosphere. (b) All students so returning will be more mature, especially after year II of full-time teaching. Thus the 'university atmosphere' will be uti-

lised by those to whom it is of greatest benefit, whereas the more intensive year I course is applicable to the needs of immediate post sixth forms.

Although we advocate the transfer of B. Ed. candidates from the colleges, on economic grounds and for the benefit of the students, we envisage a much closer relationship in general between the colleges and the universities to which they are affiliated.

Remedies for the remaining weaknesses outlined in Part I, section V are already embodied in the organisation of some colleges — so these parts need no further amplification.

Difficulties of changing course will remain to some extent but as will already be clear students who are unsuited to the teaching profession will be revealed earlier in the course. This will make a transfer to another area of study possible at an earlier age. Full-time teaching experience during the 2nd year will broaden the student's outlook; closer links with the university will have a similar effect on college life. Interchange of students for lectures, societies and extra mural activities is to be strongly recommended.

It is increasingly recognised that co-operation between the college and the school in the arrangements for and supervision of student teaching practice is essential in enabling a fair assessment to be made, School-College relationships can be strengthened by:

1. Allowing the schools to play an active part in the training of student.

2. By making in-service training an integral part of the college curriculum.

3. By inviting Heads to give lectures and take part in seminar work.

Much dissatisfaction has been voiced and piecemeal criticism made of the present system of training teachers. We offer what we believe to be a constructive and coherent alternative.

A School for Partially Hearing Children in Poland

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The school itself is on a city street, looking very like any of the other city buildings, except possibly for the flowers and plants at the windows. It does have a school garden, but at some distance from the school; and like so many schools it is looking forward to getting new buildings in the near future. It is a small school, with some 200 pupils; there are boarding facilities for some boys in the school itself and some girl boarders are lodged in the nearby Institute for the Deaf. The precise degree of hearing loss which qualifies for entrance to the school is not rigidly fixed; the decision to admit a child depends on the judgment of a group including a doctor specialising in work with children, a teacher, a psychologist and a specialist in laryngology and audiology. They are consciously influenced by the child's general behaviour, by the use that is made of whatever hearing the child has. The aim of the school is to enable the pupils to go out and play a normal part in society, particularly to make them independent by enabling them to use books and other aids to learning; on leaving the school they can go on, with expert counselling, to various forms of work or vocational training; it is only those who have not made the hoped-for progress who will go on to more specialised, protected vocational training under the aegis of the Institute for the Deaf. The school has thus a twofold aim; to help the children to overcome their hearing handicap and to help them master a normal school curriculum.

Classes are small, usually numbering from 10 to 12 pupils, though some of the classes of older children may have 14. In earlier stages the classrooms are provided with units of four positions, linked usually in a horse-shoe formation, each desk (or table top) provided with headphone and microphone set. The teacher has a console which enables her to speak to the whole group or to individuals;

the children can adjust their apparatus to control volume of sound and also to speak to the teacher or to listen to the others in the group. (Even for some of the more senior pupils it seems sometimes to be a problem to remember that they are wearing the apparatus — and so have to remove it — if they are asked to come out to the front of the class to point out or demonstrate something.) Navy or black overalls are pretty generally worn, brightened by white collars; but there is no rigid conformity about this—styles vary—some boys wearing very contemporary-looking dark jackets, others wearing the more traditional 'blouse' type. Similarly some girls wear the less fashionable and dowdy overall, or even the traditional black pinafore; others have smarter, rather lighter-blue jackets. What is officially regarded as uniform is the wearing of a badge with the number of the school on the sleeve. In school, of course, all the children are required to wear slippers, not outdoor shoes.

In the daily classroom routine for the younger children there are typical ways of doing things; the teacher inspects hands and ears for cleanliness at the beginning of the day. They go to wash their hands before having 'breakfast' (the mid-morning break, in our terms) when a large red pitcher of warm milk, mugs, and a tray of rolls are brought into the classroom. This provision is carried round the school by an adult but inside the classroom the distribution is done by the monitor for the day who is distinguished by an armlet (the monitor's duties are simply and clearly indicated on a wall chart — giving out milk and rolls, cleaning the blackboard, watering the plants — not only stated in words but illustrated).

For the youngest pupils, aged about 7, the day begins with articulation and breathing exercises; the teacher produces wisps of cotton wool on threads; the children dangle these before their faces and blow vigorously at them. The teacher lights a candle; one at a time pupils come to the front of the class, take up position about a yard from the candle and try to blow out the flame. If they can't manage it, they move a little nearer till they are successful. This seemed a popular exercise; one small and rather frail-looking boy (who was said to be probably generally retarded) made determined efforts without success — he was probably aiming too low to catch the flame; at any rate everyone was so relieved when he finally managed it that a round of applause was given. And each pupil, on carrying out the exercise, made a polite little bow or curtsey to the class (or the teacher). It is fascinating to see how neatly and precisely some of the little boys can bow.

Syllabic practice followed, or simple vowel sounds, each illustrated by a clear picture pinned to the board. For instance 'O O O' showing children astonished at finding an immense pumpkin; or 'bu bu bu' — a man chopping wood with great effort. The teacher also indicated differences in volume by writing letters very large on the board, then writing them in a much smaller size. Length was indicated by drawing a line under some letters, putting a dot for shortness under others. Descending pitch was shown (in another class) by a blackboard drawing of steps descending. The class repeated such sounds or syllables together; then a few individuals were asked to try them alone. The contrast between the vigorous sound produced when all were speaking — one or two of the more advanced children could put considerable force into sound-making—and the inaudible or very faint efforts by one or two of the less able children was startling as a reminder of the extent of the handicap affecting these children.

There is constant emphasis on the association of words with objects. For an arithmetic problem — 'Viola has 3 mushrooms, Taddeus has 4, how many altogether?' — carefully cut out paper models were produced. For part of another lesson a doll was taken round the class: 'To lala' (there is the doll) repeated each child as the doll was held out to it; subsequent writing of the phrase on the board, and repetition of it, followed the same pattern of mixed group and individual work. The children drew the doll in their jotters and wrote 'lala' beside it. (The drawings showed a considerable range of development levels; some had necks, eyes, ears, fingers; others were more rudimentary squarish and round

shapes.) At appropriate points teachers of these younger classes helped individuals by putting the child's hand on the teacher's throat or lips to indicate the need for plosive or other effects.

At more advanced levels — in what would be secondary classes in our system — lessons follow a more traditional course; there is still the use of earphones and many visual aids; pupils are still grouped round or close to the teacher's table. A biology lesson used a branch of green tomatoes (from the school garden): the various parts of the plant were systematically reviewed, by question and answer — pupils calling out answers if they knew them, and being called out to point to the parts of the plant; names of the various parts were attached — flash cards being used to elicit repetition of the names and then to serve as labels. A ripe tomato was cut open; discussion of the interior led to discussion of the reasons for eating fruit, its contribution to our diet; a poster of a box of tomatoes brought out the need for careful packing and recognition of possible defects. Similarly in a history lesson there was considerable use of question and answer, but reinforced by the visual aids of date charts and maps.

To support the teaching of the younger classes there is a most attractive book, with accompanying work cards, **Czytam i pisze,** by W. Tulodziecki; the illustrations (on every page) are the same as those provided on larger wall pictures for teachers' use in the classroom. They cover various school situations — at the beginning are, e.g., pictures of children doing breathing exercises, blowing bubbles, blowing at toy windmills; we see the typical desk units, children answering the teacher, the teacher inspecting hands (dirty hands leading to the syllable 'Fe Fe Fe'); groups of school children on a walk through the park. All the sounds are illustrated before simple sentences (clearly written in the kind of script the children are to use) introduce members of the family, everyday objects and situations. It is indeed fascinating to note the resemblance of this kind of teaching to methods used in teaching foreign languages; there is the same introduction of basic vocabulary (illustrated), the same kind of exercise to be written — 'There is the house; that is my house . . . I eat, Pola eats, the cat eats . . . ' — or a word appears below a vacant space in which the object is to be drawn; or the word is to be written below the object pictured; later, sequences of pictures provide materials for composition of short stories or narratives.

This is indeed the kind of book that parents might use with children. And contact with parents is considered highly important. The class teacher has the duty of maintaining contact with individual parents where possible (visiting them if they live in the city) and helping them to help the children. Home visits are made as much as seems necessary. There are also formal meetings with parents — at the beginning of the school year, at the beginning of the second term, and at the end of the summer term. The two former are largely to explain educational matters to the parents; but the third is mainly to show the pupils' achievements.

Throughout, the general level of teaching was excellent; the teachers were clearly enthusiastic, devoted and skilful. Indeed the impression of the whole school is of an unusually happy and constructive institution. During break time there is an impression of animated and cheerful movement about the school, relaxed friendliness in contacts between pupils and staff, and indeed an impression of normal school noise — until one notices that amid the sounds of some children calling there is also more than the usual amount of communication by physical contact (and occasional use of sign language). The staff are keenly interested in developing and improving methods; research work is going on in the school; and it does seem as if considerable success is being achieved in overcoming these children's handicap and enabling them to make normal progress.

Professional Work in Environmental Studies — A School-based approach for first year students[1]

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The uncertainty and apprehension manifested by First Year students in Colleges of Education about their relationships with children, which has been referred to elsewhere,[2] struck a chord in the minds of the writers of this paper. Our own impression, and it has to be admitted that it is no more, based on encounters with students at the pre-entry interview stage, is that, while most of them had experienced contact with children in family, Sunday School, or youth group situations, very few had had systematic opportunities for close relationships with children. We were thus aware, but only in a vague and untested way, of a possible student need in this area early in their College life. Moreover, in retrospect, it seems likely that the pattern of curriculum (professional) courses in operation in Bishop Grosseteste College until June 1968 did not tend to diminish the student's sense of detachment from children. Often conducted exclusively in the College lecture room for an hour at a time these courses tended to be a kind of cyclopaedia of classroom technique — how to use a film-strip projector, how to use a tape-recorder, how to organise a visit — with reference to this or that subject specialism. Inevitably there was much overlap, and, from the point of view of this present discussion, there was little if any contact with children. Another inbuilt disadvantage of the old curriculum-course organisation was its tendency towards pre-occupation with subject specialism, and opportunities for integrated work were restricted, or, insofar as they existed at all, involved a clear departure from the normal subject-orientated courses.

The College's decision in 1967-8 to re-organise drastically the professional studies side of its teaching gave a welcome opportunity to consider an approach to the problem of giving students early, direct and close contact with children while at the same time providing them with an opportunity 'to try their hand at teaching' before school practice. In this way we hoped to overcome some of the causes of pre-school practice apprehensions.

To do it justice the reformed professional studies organisation deserves a more thoroughgoing description than is possible here. In it the emphasis is now placed upon the coordination of broad areas of professional practice. These still include aspects such as visits, the uses of television or radio broadcasts in the classroom, the use of visual aids, and so on, but, although the subject departments are invited to undertake the organisation of a particular field of study on the whole there is a strong movement away from attempts to provide courses on 'how to teach history' or 'how to teach geography'. Thus the History Department under the present system may be invited to provide a programme on the organisation and value of a school visit but in a framework of six, three hour sessions. In September 1968 the writers of this paper, one a member of the Geography Department, the other of the History Department, were asked to plan and organise a field of work on environmental studies for two groups of first year students each containing about 30 people, and at the same time the Headmaster of a local rural secondary modern school gave us the chance to work in an entirely unrestricted situation with pupils in the first form of his school.[3] We were given complete access to a large working space and full access to the children for one morning a week over the period of a term. In the afternoon the students met in College for discussions.[4]

In these afternoon sessions the students were introduced to the notion of the use of the environment as an opportunity for children to make observations and deductions for themselves in many areas of the curriculum. The students were shown the need to understand the components which go to make up the environments experienced by children in schools in different types of areas, e.g. urban and rural. A colleague from the Education Department in the College kindly came in to talk to the students about the development of child-

ren's spatial concepts.[5] This was followed by the construction and implementation of tests, the emphasis of which was on (1) the locating of places familiar to children in their neighbourhood, (2) the development of attitudes to specific countries. The tests were staged using a fourth form class at a local junior school in Lincoln. The first morning session was devoted to introducing students in the lecture room to Branston village, the location of the school, and to discussing the main elements in this environment. Suggestions were made by the tutors for approaches to the investigation of the village. The students were then organised into five small groups (about six students in each), each assigned to work with a small group of seven or eight First Formers for three successive weekly periods of a morning. Each student group was requested to formulate its own schemes of work, the staff interfering as little as possible, and then only by invitation. Especial emphasis was laid on the experimental open-ended nature of the project which the students were encouraged to exploit to the fullest extent, uninhibited by any assessment. They were called upon to regard this as an opportunity to follow their own inclinations entirely with regard to method and conduct. Finally, in the fifth week of the programme, the morning session was set aside for appraisal, discussion of the merits or otherwise of the exercise, and the whole concluded with a viewing without comment of the short film 'Into Tomorrow'.[6] This programme was repeated without serious modification with the other group of students and school pupils in the second half of the term, and has also been followed with some minor differences with groups of First Year students and school pupils during the autumn term 1969.

Each combined group of College students and First Form school children chose an aspect of the local environment to investigate for their three successive weekly morning sessions. One group of students and children examined the location and site of Branston. This led to work on basic map-reading in association with a relief model (constructed by a student) and the ground itself, investigation of the sources of building materials (exploration of a local quarry), the original village centre (a visit to the church), water resources (the river and pumps). Another group studied the appearance and buildings of the village, investigating the church and its components and making rubbings of gravestones and plastercasts of medieval carvings. This group also plotted and described houses of interest and took photographs. A third group investigated employment in the area, shopping habits and the use of leisure, leading to valuable visits to a local haulage firm, egg-packing station, hospital, and large hotel, and to the publication of findings in the local parish magazine. A group investigated parish affairs, interviewing a parish councillor, the vicar, members of the Women's Institute, and the public, and this also led to publication of findings in the parish magazine. The remaining group carried out a study of communications in and around Branston, local traffic movements, defining the main arteries of the area and the direction, quality and quantity of traffic flow.

The enquiries carried out in Branston by the second party of students and school children in the latter half of the autumn term 1968 more-or-less paralleled those undertaken by their predecessors, saving that those enquiries which involved members of local organisa-

Week	1	2	3	4	5
Tues. p.m.	Introduction to the Environment	Final Preparation	Branston Consultation / Spatial concepts	Branston Consultation / Spatial concepts	Westgate Experiment in S.C.
Wed. a.m.	The scheme at Branston	Branston 1	Branston 2	Branston 3	Finale

tions or the public were not included on the second time round for fear that they might arouse local antipathy. In the second year of this exercise a rather more extensive list of suggestions for possible approaches to the environment was compiled for the students' guidance, although the scope of each suggested enquiry was more closely defined and limited than had been the case in 1968 at Branston. This was simply to enable us to see which was more useful, the open, undefined broadly-worded topic, (e.g. transport and communications) which left the student plenty of scope or the more closely defined topic, (e.g. conduct a traffic census at point X, with reference to the numbers of cars, buses, lorries and bicycles, and compare it with a census taken at point Y) where the student was relieved of the responsibility, and possible anxiety, of working out what to do. In fact, our opinions are still divided on this point.

The exercise was repeated, as has been indicated already, in the autumn of 1969 again with two groups of thirty students. This time the two groups worked simultaneously for five weeks with First Form pupils in two urban secondary modern schools. This gave us an opportunity to compare how successful the exercise would be in the ostensibly less favourable situation of a town environment. The town chosen for this purpose was Gainsborough, about eighteen miles from Lincoln. Lincoln itself was not used because we felt that, what with the presence of a cathedral, a castle, two visible Roman Gateways, and a wealth of other historical buildings within easy reach of most local schools, the average teacher ought to find little difficulty in using the environment in his teaching. At Gainsborough, however, the historical and geographical opportunities offered by the area are less obvious (although certainly available) and the two schools which gave us hospitality on this occasion are not well located for making easy use of these opportunities. Having groups of students at work in two schools in the same area at one and the same time, we hoped would bear fruit in the form of useful exchanges of points of view and experiences of the responses of different groups of children to the same kind of approach, and this possibility was enhanced by the matching of topics chosen for study by the various subgroups of College students and school children in the two schools. Groups in both schools studied traffic arrangements and movement, local 'bus services, tombstones in the local churchyard and cemetery (leading to graphs of life span, collections of inscriptions, information about trades and ranks), the river (in this case the Trent, producing biological study of samples, study of sediment, rate of flow), the sixteenth century manor house, and the local market (followed by a map of the stalls, comparison of prices, goods sold, opinions of consumers). Again the morning sessions in the schools were followed by afternoon discussions. On this occasion the students' choice of topics to be investigated came after they had been briefed with a preliminary visit to Gainsborough. Such a visit had not been included in the 1968 programme and we felt that it was a serious omission.

The reactions of all three schools to our presence in their midst naturally differed. Each one welcomed us generously, but facilities, space and staff numbers inevitably were not uniform, and nor were climates of opinion, and students, in 1969 at least, were made aware of a healthy variety and lack of prescription in school organisation and ethos. Essentially what we were allowed to ask for, and invariably obtained, was complete freedom of access to the school children. So, for a morning a week over three weeks, the students were granted leave to come and go with the children as and when they pleased, and were free to plan their own work with them without any reference whatsoever to what the school itself might be doing. While objections can obviously be raised to this — was it desirable to detach ourselves from the normal school programme? — this freedom did permit the students to make contact with the children on their own terms rather than in a context whose structure had been predetermined from outside without reference to the exigencies of the immediate situation. This means that we wanted to avoid having to integrate with syllabuses prescribed by the schools so that the students were free to create their own relationships with the children.

On the other hand, we felt that secondary schools, being generally in the area in which we live and work, larger and more easily capable of absorbing a larger contingent of students, were more suitable to our purpose than junior schools. However, there seems no other reason why, in the future, we could not carry out this exercise in a suitably large junior school. In fact future possibilities were enormous, with two groups of students placed in both a junior and secondary school at the same time, or in an urban and a rural secondary or junior school.

From these latter remarks it follows that we feel that something positive has come out of this experiment and that it is worth repeating. To some extent, it has to be freely admitted, when we embarked on this exercise for the first time in 1968 in Branston, our aims were far from clear to ourselves. Probably it would be true to say that these were at first based on our dissatisfaction with earlier environmental studies courses and that our intention was to give our students a practical introduction to local studies in schools. However, while we were experienced in conducting field-work for students at their own level, we were uncertain about the transfer of techniques and experience to the classroom. It was only gradually, therefore, that we realised that the exercise we had planned and organised was serving a much more fundamental student need, the need in fact which has been identified and discussed in Miss Cope's paper.[7] Students were being provided with an opportunity to encounter children early in the first year of their College career. Moreover, this opportunity was coming to them in circumstances which will repay further consideration. First, the local studies were a serious and necessary part of the exercise. The students would, it was hoped learn something of the possibilities of using the environment in their teaching. Moreover, by organising the students' visits to the schools as working visits, they had a chance to see for themselves how children experience being taught.

Few of them will ever have done this, as Miss Cope has shown. Moreover few of those students had ever before looked critically at a piece of work produced by a young child, and most were uncertain of their aims in this respect. Questions naturally arose concerning the importance of correct spelling, neat handwriting, and the degree to which over-insistence on these matters might destroy a child's confidence and interest. At this stage many students revealed a deep conservatism, especially in respect of the type of follow-up work expected from children. There was a marked fondness for the traditional essay. To some extent, it was possible to see that student anxiety on these points derived from their own self-consciousness about their role vis-a-vis the children. These were the things that playing the part of a teacher required in their view.

Deliberately, we placed the students in very close and intimate contact with the children. Groups of some five or six students combined to work with groups of seven or eight children, and care was taken to see that this ratio was never seriously disturbed. This close proximity to children was intended to encourage the students to talk to the children, to think about what the child's 'level' is, and what the role of the teacher ought to be. Some groups found it possible to work as a team with the children, but others tended to impose their own interests on the children and to take the initiative out of the children's hands. Working in such close proximity to the children there were inevitably worries about discipline — what should they call the children, what should the children call them?—and the greater freedom of movement, unrestricted by the confines of classroom and timetabling, contributed to a more relaxed relationship between the students and the children. We were careful to insist that the role of the tutors in this exercise was different from that involved in the supervision of a teaching practice. We were careful not to pass judgement about the success or failure of what took place in order to encourage the students to follow their own ideas to the full.

In the first year of this project the composition of the two groups of students manifested certain significant differences. One group contained a large proportion of mature men and

women, which must be a considered factor in the situation. Thus some of the mature men in this group said that they had undergone a double experience, since, besides the opportunity for close contact with children, they had also discovered to their relief that they were accepted as equals by the younger students of whose youth and mental alertness they had felt afraid. The impact on the young men, for whom there was no pre-existing tradition,[8] was also valuable, as they were able to discover that nobody minded if they admitted to feeling nervous about meeting young children for the first time. This student group commenced as a loosely-knit body of 'freshers' but ended as a closely-knit group with a considerable willingness to criticise each other and to share experiences and problems. It is interesting to contemplate the impact of this student group in the process of developing its identity on the children who, as a first form, were themselves experiencing a similar process, and on the development of group relationships within the mixed student-children sub-groups. The second group in the autumn of 1968 contained largely 'school-leavers' and the number of mature students and male students was small. Most members of this group were drawn from the 'Arts' main courses. Naturally by half way through the term, when this group embarked on the project at Branston, it was an older body in terms of its existence than the previous group, and had had time to develop its identity and had learned how to deal with any disruptive forces inside it. Similarly the school children had also had half a term to settle down and to become familiar with themselves and their environment. These students were perhaps less concerned with problems of spelling, grammar, the desirability of establishing a groundwork of factual knowledge, than their predecessors had been. They seemed more able to forget status differences between themselves and the children, and the latter were more fully incorporated into the work of planning, researching and assembling the studies that were being carried on.

Student comment about the project naturally varied, influenced doubtless by the different make-up of the two groups. Some in the first group said that they would have welcomed more briefing, especially about the children they were to work with. As it was, however, they felt the situation was too much 'trial-and-error'. There was a good deal of comment from some students as to the realism of the small ratio of students to children. In particular there was disagreement between those with previous teaching experience as to the validity of this exercise, some feeling that they had not benefitted from what they regarded as an artificial situation. But many students said that they had learned most from this experience about the children themselves and had been able to identify children's problems more quickly than might have been possible if they had had charge of a large group. They admitted to feeling shyness in first encountering the children, felt they had learned at firsthand what limitations were contained in the children's experience (e.g. that some could not read 'bus timetables), and felt that the relationship between them and the children was different ('matey', friendly) from what it might have been in a large group. In the second group on the other hand, everyone seemed to agree that to have been placed in a close relationship with children had been exciting and beneficial. One student said that as many students had just left school they were able to view the situation from a different angle from that of students who already had some teaching experience behind them. They thought the exercise at Branston would help them to make a smooth transition from the pupil role to the student-teacher role. Student comment on the whole in both groups revealed gratitude for this early opportunity to test at firsthand contact with children and indicated that other First Year students who had not participated were envious. 'It has taken away some of the fear of being thrust face to face with a full class and made me realise that a class of children are (sic) not just a mass but a group of individuals' was one student's comment.

On the whole the comments of those students who participated in the second year of this project in Gainsborough schools did not differ substantially in kind from the remarks which their predecessors made. Again we found that we did not have any difficulty in persuading the students to accept the notion of using the

environment as a learning situation. However, the emphasis of the project seems to have swung away from practical experience with local studies, although these are still an integral part of it. The main value of the exercise seems to us to lie in the opportunity which it affords to First Year students early in their College life to explore close and relatively uninhibited contacts with young children on their own terms. The students' comments testify to the need for such contacts, free from anxiety about timetables and classroom organisation, and our project, we feel gives them this chance within the loose framework of a learning situation. This latter is a necessary condition because of the element of responsibility which it affords to the student vis-a-vis the child. At the time of writing we do not frankly know whether the students who took part in the exercise at Branston in 1968 and Gainsborough in 1969 have experienced any benefits in regard to their normal teaching practice from this early contact with children. One difficulty of which we have been made aware was that, having been fired with enthusiasm for local studies students did not always find it possible to follow this up in schools while on First Year teaching practice, although we ourselves should have liked to have prescribed an opportunity to put into practice in a normal classroom situation some of the notions and techniques which we had encouraged during the, admittedly, abnormal conditions which occurred in our Branston exercise. Where do we go from here? Certainly we have established a need for this kind of student-child encounter early in the First Year, and would wish to see this be continued and extended to every First Year student rather than a selected few. As indicated above, there are all sorts of permutations possible between rural and urban, primary and secondary schools. Meanwhile we are in the process of considering whether our project has any role to play in the Second and Third Years of a student's College life. Is there still a need at this stage for relatively free, intensive contact between students and children as opposed to the rather more inhibited encounter which takes place on teaching practices when students confront groups of 30 or 40 children?

References

1 We are much indebted to the Director of Professional Studies at Bishop Grosseteste College, Lincoln, Mr H. E. Beresford, whose co-operation made the project described in this paper possible.

2 E. Cope: 'Students and School Practice', **Education for Teaching, No. 80 Autumn 1969,** pp. 25-35.

3 We are grateful to the Headmaster of Branston Secondary Modern School (Parts of Kesteven) and Gainsborough Middlefield and Castle Hills Schools (Lincolnshire, Parts of Lindsey) and Westgate Junior School (Lincoln) for their most generous assistance.

4 It should, however, be noted that the discussions took place on Tuesday afternoons, while the school experience occurred on Wednesday mornings. There was thus a six day interval between the experience and any subsequent discussion.

5 Our thanks are due to Mr E. Dix, Senior Lecturer in Education at Bishop Grosseteste College, Lincoln.

6 **Into Tomorrow,** made by John Howard, Senior Lecturer in charge of audio-visual education for Nuffield Science project, at Bishop Grosseteste College.

7 E. Cope: Op. Cit., passim.

8 September 1968 witnessed the first intake of resident male students when the college officially became co-educational.

Teaching Craft Apprentices

C. R. Wason

I began my working life teaching history in universities, and am finishing it teaching engineers, mostly craft apprentices on day release in a college of further education. This has meant adapting the technique of university lecturing to interest people who are not very academically minded. How does one set about this?

Take a look at a typical class — craft apprentices, about the lowest stratum of the educational alluvium. How degrading that an intellectual — the kind of person that history is about — should have to cast his pearls into this piggery. Still, we've got to try something. Well, for a start, do they know any date in English history?

Oh, they've heard of 1066, have they? That's something, anyway. And what happened in 1066?

This causes rather more difficulty, but they will eventually decide that William the Conqueror won the battle of Hastings.

(Of course, he didn't; because he only became the Conqueror after he had won the battle of

Hastings. Before the battle he was William the Bastard, and if by any chance the class seem interested you can tell them about his parents, Robert the Devil and Arlette the Harlette. But this is a side issue.)

Do the class think that William won the battle all by himself, or did he have some help from other people? Why did the Normans win? Generalising, why did the Norman French win almost every battle they fought for some six hundred years? There was a Norman Conquest of Scotland in 1057, when the legitimate king Macbeth was overthrown by the Norman-backed quisling Malcolm; a Norman conquest of Sicily around 1070, of Palestine in 1099, and so on. What was the little something that the Normans had to make them so irresistible? To explain this we shall need a couple of pictures on the board. Don't be depressed if you can't draw; I can't draw, and this amuses the class and makes them look at the point I am trying to explain. First, we will have a picture of a Roman soldier on horseback, and then of a Norman knight. What's the difference?

With a bit of patience the class will come up with the answer — stirrups, which make the Norman solid with his horse. The Roman can put about fifty pounds weight behind his spear; there is something like three quarters of a ton behind the Norman point. This is not the whole story; there is a whole new system of fighting based on the stirrup, and a new political structure to support the new way of fighting. But the stirrup is the starting point.[1]

In fact, the man responsible for the Norman victory at Hastings was not William, but an unknown craftsman somewhere in Eastern Asia who some centuries earlier had invented stirrups. The really important people in history are people we don't know, though we usually know more or less when and where they lived, and the kind of lives they lived. Possibly even a class of craft apprentices contains people who are more important than the distinguished intellectual who is talking to them.

Another example may help. We have all heard of Nelson and Trafalgar and the British command of the sea that beat Napoleon. But how many of your class have heard of the elder Brunel, who designed the block making machinery that kept the British fleets at sea? Or about Maudslay, who had just produced the slide rest lathe on which the machines were made; not to mention Watt, whose improved steam engine was used to drive the machinery?

We can now begin to see why school history so often bores students; they feel instinctively, and rightly, that it is not about anything that matters. Of course, history is not about the past; it is about the present, how we come to be the kind of people we are, and what is wrong with existing societies. But to reach this idea of history we have to find the important things in history; the inventions and ideas that have contributed to human progress. It is of course quite impossible to study history without a working knowledge of every branch of society and technology; this is one of the reasons why history is fascinating.

The history of ideas can be especially useful for apprentices; if you want to understand Boyle's Law, read about Boyle's original experiments.[2] I usually devote some time to the history of mathematics, starting with the origin of arithmetic. I ask the class to imagine themselves an early food producing tribe which reaches the banks of the Nile.[3] After the flood they can sow grain on the mud; they reap a wonderful harvest, and there is plenty to eat. The food begins to run short, and they need another flood. At this point the clever fellow in the tribe comes forward (that's me).

'Boys,' I tell them, 'you're lucky to have me in your village, because I know a magic that will make floods. Now I must warn you all that this is a very difficult and dangerous magic. I shall be interfering with forces of nature which are beyond the feeble comprehension of miserable earth-worms like yourselves; and I wouldn't dream of running these risks if it wasn't that I'm trying to help you. But I shall need some help from you too. In order to protect me from the death-dealing rays I shall be meeting I shall need protective clothing all over, and this will have to be made of solid gold[4]; and while I know we're a bit short of

food just now, I must keep up my strength for the ordeal before me — complete rest and treble rations for me from now on.'

They need a flood, so he gets everything he asks for; and he does his magic, and along comes the flood. Of course, he does it really by counting the days between floods. A memory of this length develops only slowly with speech; I deal with this idea in detail earlier in the course. Probably he counted in months of 30 days, and found there were 360 days in the year, and you can go from there to deal with the later history of the calendar and the use of sexagesimal units in measurements.[5]

The next stage is that the magician gets greedy and wants more, so he plans to take over other villages round about. As they also have magicians, the one who comes out on top is the one who thinks up a new idea. He picks two or three hundred of his best peasants — pick two or three of the class to represent them, explaining that you have chosen them as the bravest, strongest, most intelligent and most beautiful — and forms a little professional army, which can beat up quite a lot of untrained peasants. And then at last we have the whole district organised for Civilisation and Progress, and I dismiss the army and tell them to get back to their farms and start digging to keep me in the manner to which I've been accustomed.

Of course, I have a mutiny on my hands; they're now skilled men, and they expect to share the profits. At first I'm a bit upset by this, because I haven't yet got to the idea of sharing the wealth; but eventually I realise that it's got advantages. Up till now I've had to control unruly peasants by cursing them (I use the idea of the Egyptian Execration Texts). A curse is much more effective if I've got a friend with a copper-tipped spear to help it along. So we settle down as a society ruled by priests and nobles, and I go round collecting payments for making a nice food.

The first peasant I come to is a good peasant, and he gives me a big sack of grain. The second peasant is a bad peasant, and he produces only a measly little bag. I'm furious, and demand an explanation—and meanwhile I ask one of my friends with a spear to stand by, because I think I may need him in a moment.

The second Peasant is terrified, and explains that he has only a tiny little field. I'm a reasonable man; governing classes must always be reasonable; you can explain the relation between moral and physical force in governments. Anyway, I go and look at the fields. The first peasant's field looks like this (iii) but the second peasant's field looks like this (iv).

I get even angrier; I can walk across the first peasant's field in five minutes, but it takes me an hour to walk across the second peasant's field. Why, he should have paid me twelve sacks. Is my friend with the spear quite ready?

This can produce some account of the emergence of concepts of area and volume among young children, and to some reflections on the teaching of mathematics in schools. But for the magician it raises the problem of finding out how much grain a field can produce.

After much thought he invents a new implement, which we will call a square yard. He presses this down in the earth, and sees how much grain he can grow within the impression. After this he had only to find out how many square yards he can press into each field to know how much grain the field can produce; and after that the calculation is easy, because in our village we believe in fair shares for all — half the grain from each field for the peasant, and half for the magician.

So I set out with a little posse of slaves to find out how many square yards there are in each field. One slave carries the square yard, and presses it down in one corner. I say 'One', and the First Counter holds up a finger. We put the square yard down again, just touching the first imprint. I say 'Two', and the first counter holds up another finger. Eventually we discover the decimal system of recording counts (not forgetting an intermediate stage of counting in scores). But it's all a lot of work. Isn't there a simpler way of finding the number of

squares in a field?

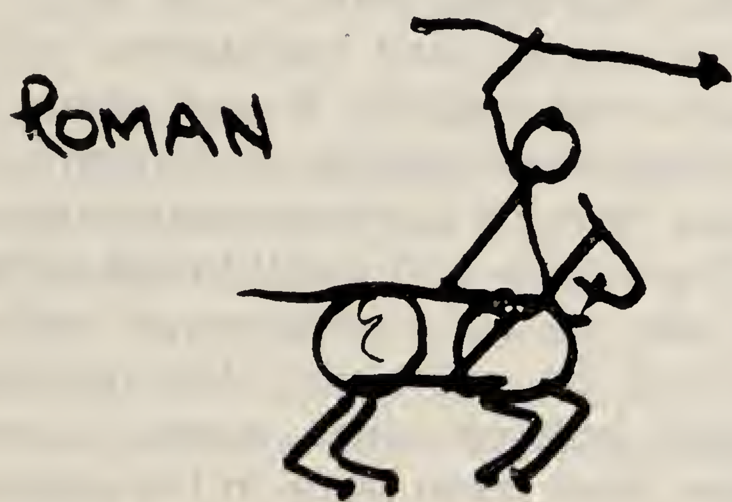
At least we've now found the answer to one question the class have usually asked before now: 'Why was arithmetic ever invented?' Of course, it's just a lazy way of counting. And if you're going to be really good at arithmetic, it's often an advantage to be lazy, as we shall find again when we get to Pythagoras and the beginning of algebra. Early multiplication used a binary method, which I usually introduce as a piece of magic; this can lead on to the kind of arithmetic invented by computers, which have only one finger.

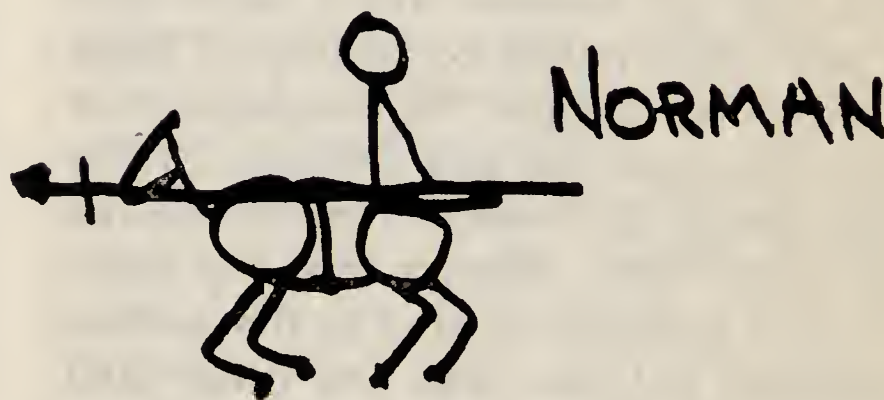
Eventually my arithmetic becomes more complicated. I wish to conquer the country over the hill. My Oracle (I explain how oracles acted as intelligence agencies) tells me that I shall need five thousand men on a three month's campaign. If each man needs a pint of barley a day, how many pints of barley shall I need? How much space will this barley occupy? because I must know how large to build my granaries. How many bricks shall I need to build the granaries? How many men to make these bricks? How many pints of barley to feed the men who will make the bricks to build the granaries to hold the barley for my ever-victorious army?

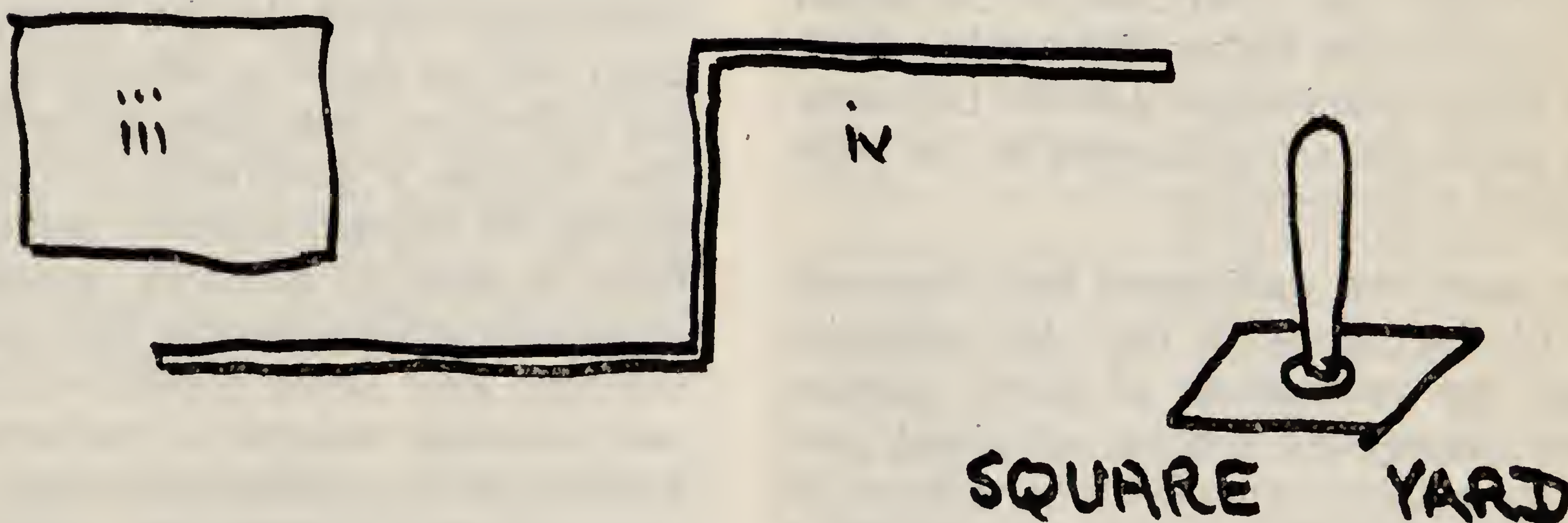
If the class is still interested, I show them the oldest known schoolboy's exercise in arithmetic; if you have a granary of barley, how many men can you feed for a week?[6]

Further reading

1 Lynn White, 'Mediaeval Technology and Social Change.'
2 Harvard Case Studies in Experimental Science, vol. 1.
3 For the general background to early societies, V. G. Childe, 'Man Makes Himself'; Hawkes and Woolley, 'History of Mankind' (1963) vol. 1. But archaeological journals and imagination must be added.
4 'Death dealing rays' is a modernisation; in fact the idea is that gold, being indestructible, confers this property on the wearer. At some stage in the course I deal with this idea.
5 For instance, S. E. Mason, 'A History of the Sciences' (London 1953). Presumably there are 360 degrees in a circle because there are 360 days in the year; no one would divide a right angle into 90 parts, any more than they would start a scale at 32 and finish at 212. This can lead to an interesting discussion on natural and artificial units of measurement.
6 Revue d'Assyriologie, 1963, p.146.







1. ROMAN CAVALRYMAN
2. NORMAN CAVALRYMAN
3. THE FIRST PEASANT'S FIELD
4. THE SECOND PEASANT'S FIELD
5. A SQUARE YARD

The Origins and Development of School Councils

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School Councils in State Secondary Schools

A few contemporary school councils will be described to complete the picture, indeed it is not easy to find accounts of them. There is no source book for this, even to the extent that there was for progressive schools. Descriptions come largely from press reports, school magazines, and private enquiries. Almost all the examples are from day schools, whereas most progressive schools were boarding: this makes a considerable difference to the running of the council.

An example of a successful school council is that at the co-educational Abraham Darby Comprehensive School in Madeley, Shropshire. The author of a description of it says in 1967, 'I suppose we are one of the few comprehensive schools with a school parliament.' Events are moving sufficiently fast for that no longer to hold true. The scheme was initiated by the headmaster for a school that is divided into six houses and a sixth form college, with each house consisting of three mixed-ability tutor groups. The composition of the council includes one boy and one girl for each tutor group, and twelve representatives from the sixth form college, making forty-eight in all. A member of staff is the permanent chairman, but the head and other staff are not present. The agenda, to which all pupils and staff can contribute, is discussed first in tutor groups, before the weekly meeting on a Friday which deals with the business. Majority decisions are presented to the head who has the final authority.

In many ways the parliament has improved the lot of the pupils: it has, for example, organised the publication of dinner menus, abolished homework diaries, obtained permission for public examination candidates to have time off school for revision, and obtained a parking bay for affluent sixth formers. It has also begun to take some part in the punishment of pupils, and some responsibility for the discipline of the school. It is the experience of this successful school parliament that when limited advisory powers are sensibly and responsibly used, further powers can be added later.

Leicestershire was one of the authorities which pioneered a two-tiered system of secondary education. The senior or upper schools have consisted, for the last fourteen years, of pupils who voluntarily opted to stay on at school after the age of fifteen. The age of transfer is fourteen, and those who wished to leave as soon as possible completed their final year at the junior high school, forming a sort of inverted elite. The upper school therefore was selective but on a voluntary basis. There are proposals now to change to a simple two-tiered comprehensive system to coincide with the raising of the school leaving age, with the age of transfer for everybody being fourteen. A school council at one of these upper schools, The Beauchamp School, Oadby, was established in 1967. It consists of the head and his deputy, the senior mistress, two senior and two junior staff representatives, the six senior prefects, and one elected member from every form in the school. 'The aim', the deputy head has stated, 'will be to delegate responsibility if and when pupils show themselves capable of carrying it. When requests from the pupils spontaneously move from the pattern of 'I want' to the pattern of 'what can we do' I imagine we shall have reason to be optimistic'. His optimism is probably justified since several beneficial changes have taken place in the school, and the school has a considerable reputation for charitable service to the community. Sufficient time for forms to debate the agenda has been stressed, and again the school realises that it takes a generation of pupils at least before the council properly settles down and finds its level of authority, something which large numbers of councils have learned, often the hard way. Some pupils will always retain less elevated notions of the school council than those who established them. In this case a pupil writes in the school magazine, 'Subjects under discussion have ranged from the petty (fifth formers getting wet!) to the profound (the posting of school reports).'

Many education authorities have accepted the Leicestershire plan of secondary education, including parts of the West Riding. Until recently, Oakbank Grammar School was a traditional boys' grammar school, serving the Keighley area, and selecting its pupils on the results of the eleven-plus examination. Two years ago it changed to become the upper tier in a two-tiered system. Instead of taking pupils of higher academic ability at eleven, it now takes a comprehensive ability range at the age of fourteen. In addition the school has become co-educational.

The school council was established in 1965 on the initiative of the headmaster, Mr A. E. Watthey. The stated aims of the council are to make suggestions to the headmaster for the smooth running of the school and general discipline, to discuss complaints, and to suggest innovations. These issues can take the form of resolutions which, when passed, are considered by the headmaster and any other appropriate higher authority. Further to this the headmaster has stated that he wants the school council to be the means towards a greater sense of involvement and active participation in the life of the school. He sees the council also as a safety-valve which will release the feelings of pupils and prevent any seething below the surface. He is willing to give pupils, especially the more senior ones, as much responsibility as they can bear, and as is compatible with the authority of staff, governors, and local education committee. In practice, therefore, the school council could well go beyond its stated aims and functions in its role.

The council consists of one elected representative from each form, with the head boy or deputy head boy in the chair. The secretary and minute secretary are both selected from senior pupils on the council. Councillors are elected under the supervision of the form master, and serve for the period of a term. They can be re-elected for a further term of office.

Automatic council meetings take place on the third Friday and penultimate Monday of each term. Extraordinary meetings can take place at any time at the written request of at least six members.

The headmaster and his deputy are present at each meeting, and other staff have the right to attend. They do not vote, but act as guides, observers, and sources of factual information. Staff may submit motions in the same way as any other member: resolutions must be submitted in writing to the secretary with the names of proposers and seconders so that they can be published one week before the meeting. Voting is by a show of hands, but a secret ballot may be held if requested by six members. Speeches made by individual councillors are limited to five minutes each, and all remarks are addressed to the chair. Meetings last for about an hour, but if business is not completed by 5 p.m., then the rest is dealt with a week later. Two-thirds of the council must be present to form a quorum.

There is also an upper house, which consists of second and third year sixth form pupils. It has two main functions: to organise and fulfil the normal prefectorial and school duties which are expected of senior pupils, and to initiate and ratify school council resolutions. It does not have executive authority with regard to council decisions; this is shared by the headmaster, his staff, and the education authority. Meetings of the upper house take place with the same regularity as council meetings. On the abandonment of the former selective prefect system, it was found that in the new scheme, whereby all upper sixth formers shared the school duties, many juniors flouted the authority of the seniors, especially where these duties were being carried out by those who would not normally have been prefects. To give some protection to the latter, a prefects' executive council has been set up, which consists of the head boy, his deputy, house captains, and house vice-captains. The committee meets regularly and punishes junior recalcitrants, who can appeal to the full school council if they feel their punishments are unjust. The head boy is required to report regularly to the headmaster on the functioning of the executive council.

Resolutions passed, and issues discussed by the school council are then referred to a staff meeting. When the actual matters are being dealt with by the staff the head boy

and his deputy can request permission to be present to state the council's case and to answer any questions. They must retire before the staff make their decision, and the headmaster has the final voice in the matter.

The school is in a period of transition from an age-range of eleven to eighteen, to fourteen to eighteen. It is naturally hoped that the elimination of the junior pupils will result in a more mature and responsible community, in which warmer and more adult teacher-pupil relationships can flourish. The council fits into this framework, by giving a voice and responsibility in school affairs. Although it has been made clear that the council's authority is necessarily advisory, the headmaster is prepared to give as much increased responsibility through the council as is commensurate with the maturity and good sense shown by pupils.

As well as grammar schools which are changing into comprehensive schools having school councils, so too do some secondary modern schools which are becoming comprehensive. An example is the school council at Mansfield County Secondary School in Brierfield, Lancashire. Here the headmaster has established a council of members elected by their forms, on the basis of one boy and one girl from each of the fourth, fifth and sixth forms. The third forms have one member each present as observers. Meetings are normally held once a fortnight, and are preceded and followed up by form meetings to involve as many pupils as possible. There is no rule concerning the type of item with which the school council can deal. The headmaster, who is present at the meeting, has to point out sometimes that certain things are beyond his control, but his view is usually accepted once it is understood. This council has only had a short life as yet, but it has become accepted by the school, and one of its strengths is the liaison with the rest of the school before and after council meetings.

Most of the school councils set up in the post-war period were in maintained grammar schools. Many of these schools have become, or are in the process of becoming, comprehensive, and in this change the school council can play an important role. This can be to smooth the path when a selective intake becomes non-selective. Often the council has added significance when the school becomes an upper stratum of a two-tier system. An example of this is Heanor Grammar School in Derbyshire. Under a reorganisation scheme none of its pupils is now under thirteen. The council has helped to create a more adult environment than existed before, aiming to encourage as many from the feeder schools as possible to transfer to Heanor. The council has wide powers to help in the general running of the school. It has thirty-five members: thirty pupils, four members of staff, and the head, who by mutual consent acts as chairman. It meets three or four times a term after school, and the business is conducted formally to give pupils experience of committee and debating procedures. No topic is barred from discussion, all aspects of school life being open to question.

It has been made clear by the head that he is not able to act on all motions before the council. But if he cannot act, he gives a reasoned explanation to the council. There are formal standing orders, and agendas, and minutes are duplicated and used by council representatives when they report back to their forms, which decide the motions or questions to be submitted to the next meeting. Recent items on the agenda included discussions as to whether to make swimming a recognised summer sport; the problem of stacking chairs in the school hall; items for the school shop; and several items on clothing regulations.

The school is satisfied that the council works well, and that it has provided a free channel of communication and questioning both upwards and downwards. Pupils feel they know why things happen, and that they can question and influence policy. The staff have found that the pupils have shown themselves to be responsible, contributing many constructive suggestions, as well as criticisms and questions. And the head believes that the council has brought considerable gains to the school. The school council at Aireborough Grammar School, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, first came to the notice of the education authority because of the orderly yet relaxed atmos-

phere at the school at a time when it was labouring under much inconvenience from the chaos, noise and dirt accompanying the erection of new buildings. The headmaster attributed this to the changes in school discipline, chiefly the replacement of the prefect system by a school council. Its organisation is different from the typical council, although there are quite a few in the area which are similar. The rapid expansion of the sixth form led to the ending of a select group being chosen as prefects, and the substitution of a school council confined to, but including all, members of the upper sixth form. There are two 'wardens' (one boy and one girl) elected by secret ballot, and the rest of the council are 'elders'. Training in committee procedure and rules of debate is given early in the school year. A secretary and assistant secretary are appointed who receive items for the agenda, notices of which are posted in several parts of the school. The head, his deputy, and the senior master can attend meetings in an advisory capacity, not to lay down the law so much as to disentangle the possible from the impossible. Meetings are held after school every three weeks or so, and in the course of the year the members of the lower sixth attend as observers.

Since it is replacing the prefect system, the elders have to assume the roles which the prefects once carried out, chiefly in the matters of discipline and minor administrative duties round the school. In addition each elder is assigned to a particular form in the school, and acts as its representative on the council. Discipline has come under the council's scope, and it has on one occasion suspended a pupil. Although the operation of the council is uneven, since it naturally depends on the calibre of the pupils in a particular year, all elders feel deeply involved in it and the life of the school, and a greater homogeneity and general happiness are evident since its inception. Both the pupils, through the increase in their social stature and aplomb, and the school, through higher morale and practical changes for the better, have benefited from the school council.

Like Aireborough, another school council in the West Riding began in 1964 as a senior sixth form council. It contained all members of the upper sixth, but there was also a smaller executive committee, which consisted of the head boy, his deputy, a secretary, and four other elected representatives. This committee drew up the agenda and decided when to call a full school council. The council's chief responsibilities at this stage were the punishment of offenders throughout the school, and the usual prefect's administrative duties.

By the third year of its existence, the council had been extended to include representatives from first the lower sixth and then the rest of the school. Dates for meetings are now fixed at the beginning of the term and each representative meets his form at some stage before the meeting so that he can come with their points of view. The full council is chaired by the head boy, and no staff are present; decisions are reported to the next staff meeting which can act if necessary, and also to the council committee which still exists. Form representatives are given an opportunity, in the weekly form session that each form has, to report back. Many of the staff feared that the council would want to make decisions about rules and privileges, and that anarchy would reign, but it was made explicit that decision making must be in proportion to responsibility, and that the staff must decide on all major issues. The important gain from the council, the school thinks, is the commitment that has come with involvement. Already there is a more responsible and co-operative attitude general in the school.

The experience of a Leeds girls' grammar school is again that the school council started as a sixth form council to replace the prefect system, and was then extended to include representatives of all forms. The motive was not simply the involvement of pupils: it was to give all the upper sixth (and later the whole school) the right to share in administration. The sixth form council consisted of seven members: this was extended to include first members of the lower sixth, and then members from each form. Meetings take place three times a term and are publicised well ahead. The agenda is fixed by pupils, and staff do not attend meetings. Minutes are produced, and copies circulated

to each form as well as to the staff. As in the previous example, the decisions are studied first by the sixth form council committee (the original body) and then by the staff meeting.

Pupils are asked to make decisions, but only to the limit of their responsibility: they decide things which are primarily their concern, such as details of the house system within the school. In matters where the responsibility is not theirs, pupils are given a voice, but no power of decision, for example on the value of continuing to hold school speech days. One of the main functions of the council has been to inform the school of things which go wrong which adults easily miss. Dress is one matter for girls: they asked to be allowed to wear jumpers, and having produced sound reasons for this, the school agreed. They conducted an enquiry into the amount of homework being given, and discovered that in sections of the school some were given too much, and the matter was put right. Again, it has been the school's experience that pupils when given responsibility become more adult and mature, and sensibly involved in its life.

The examples mentioned in this part of the chapter have all been in maintained grammar or comprehensive schools. School councils are, of course, to be found in schools which do not come into either of these categories. Woodhouse Grove School, founded in 1812, is a direct grant school managed by the Board of Management for Methodist Residential Schools.

Its council, the 'Agora' was first constituted in 1962 by the headmaster, Dr F. C. Pritchard, in the face of a certain amount of opposition. Its first stated aim was limited: to bring forward for discussion matters and topics affecting the life and development of the school. It was expanded, however, to include further aims: to develop a sense of personal and social responsibility at all ages; to help the whole school to understand the working of democratic government; to demonstrate that many school problems should be shared by all the members of a community; and to state the collective views of the school that can then be presented to the appropriate authorities, (the staff, governors, Methodist Education Committee, etc.) when changes in school life and routine are under consideration. The written aims of the Agora, therefore, are clearly advisory, not executive, in character, and are primarily intended to bring qualitative changes in the individual.

These aims, the headmaster stated, could only be achieved by good sense, and frank interchange of views without fear of reprisals, and by a full understanding of the school's aims and methods. He pointed out further in a statement to members of the Agora, that he hoped these aims would be achieved by four main methods: questions from representatives concerning school rules, routine and administration in general; resolutions which would be debated, often voted upon, but always properly ventilated; the bringing forward of disciplinary matters which had some social and ethical bearing; and suggestions, as opposed to resolutions, on matters which are recognised as outside the province of the Agora alone. It was stressed that even many reasonable changes asked for by the Agora could not be implemented immediately, since the views and decisions of various authorities had to be considered.

The secretary is elected annually at the first meeting of each summer term, and any member of the sixth form is eligible. The headmaster is normally the chairman but he is empowered to ask a member of the staff, usually the second master, to take the chair for any one meeting. The meeting of the Agora takes place at least once each term, and more often if business warrants it. Three or four times a term have been the maximum. The normal rules of debate are followed at meetings. A resolution has to be debated formally, and no member can speak more than once on the same motion, except to ask a question. The mover of the resolution has the right of reply at the end of the debate. No new business can be transacted until the previous business has been disposed of, and an issue once raised cannot be raised again except on a point of order or on business arising from the minutes for at least twelve months. The secretary keeps minutes of each meeting, which are typed and placed in various parts of the school within a week of

the meeting. They are also submitted for the approval of the Agora at its next meeting.

During the early years of the Agora, there was an Executive Committee which reviewed the minutes of each meeting. It took such decisions as were within its powers, and referred other matters to the appropriate authority. It consisted of the headmaster, second master, senior resident master, bursar, who acted as secretary, the head prefect, another school prefect, and one house prefect. Its functions were not always fully understood by the rest of the school: in particular there was a suspicion that the executive committee rescinded certain Agora decisions. So, in 1967, it was abolished, and Agora decisions were referred directly to the appropriate authority.

After two years of existence, it was decided to allow any member of the school to observe Agora proceedings from the gallery. The reason was to show that there was nothing secretive about the way the Agora conducted business, and to show to the rest of the school that what took place was their business not only that of members. Large numbers have availed themselves of this opportunity to be present as observers.

Liaison with the rest of the school takes two forms: the provision of a gallery so that all can be present at Agora meetings, and the duplication of minutes which are placed on school notice boards. Most representatives report back to their forms, although no specific time is set aside for this. This is usually done during the ten-minute registration period in the presence of the form-master, or perhaps in a lesson (taken by an interested master) when the whole form is present.

The examples of councils cited are but an unrepresentative sample of the many which have been established in recent years. There is a need for a large scale survey to ascertain the distribution of councils, and even more, a need for patient evaluation and assessment of their functions and work, since school councils seem likely to become an increasingly important factor in the structure of the school.

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XIX WCOTP Assembly, Sydney, Australia, 4th — 12th August, International Education Year 1970

B. Graham

To a W.E.F. member, the early spring World Conference of Organisations of the Teaching Profession, with the theme 'The Qualities of a Teacher', is the most exciting event of our bicentenary year. Once I made the short-lived suggestion that a 1970 W.E.F. world conference be held in Sydney. This International Education Year Assembly is even more significant.

For those to whom it seems the end of the earth, Sydney, capital of the State of New South Wales, is a rapidly-growing industrial city of 2¾ million people, sprawling widely around its harbour and Botany Bay and merging with younger, surrounding cities. This year, we celebrated the 200th Anniversary of James Cook's detailed charting and naming of the east coast of this continent; his skilful salvage of his 'Endeavour' wrecked on the coral Barrier Reef, repairing it in North Queensland; and the study of living creatures unknown to science by Joseph Banks and Swedish Dr Solander. While there in April, the Queen gave autonomy to the James Cook University of North Queensland, previously a College of Queensland University (Brisbane).

A condensed history should put in perspective the significance to Sydney of the WCOTP Assembly. Australian development commenced when Sydney was founded on 26th January 1788 by Governor Phillip, with eleven small ships full of marines, convicts, livestock and other supplies. Before that date there was no settlement — the nomadic Aborigines neither erected buildings nor raised crops; they had no written language.

Drought, heat, inedible hard scrub on sandstone kept the young colony dependent on Britain for most of its food, clothing, medicines, etc. It was not till 1813 that a nearby rugged tableland was crossed, opening the way to vast inland plains for spread of wheat and sheep. British free settlers shipped out their worldly goods. Self-government and gold discoveries of the mid-nineteenth century increased wealth and population. But, well into the twentieth century, even after Federation of the six States in 1901, in many aspects Australia looked **outwards** — to Britain as 'home' (to be considered good things had to be stamped 'Made in England'); to America, at first because of the undue influence of films, then because of help in World War II; to Europe, especially following the post-war waves of migrants. That war shunted Australia from rural economy towards industrialisation; discovery and export of huge mineral desposits have spurred development. World tourist trade has discovered this continent. Then international congresses have been coming here, reversing the old overseas flow of our delegates. This year they have covered Grassland, with Milk and others to come; last year, Ports and Harbours. Others have covered various fields of medicine, soil science, building societies, parliamentary government, etc. The WCOTP Assembly is the first large-scale one concerned with education. That people come to Australia for such purposes is still not quite credible to a person such as I whose family has lived through the changes around Sydney Harbour for 130 years.

Admittedly, Australian small population: vast area problems have resulted in some contributions to educational practice — two-way radio Schools of the Air to outback homesteads; correspondence lessons for those children and others on small islands or living abroad, or ill at home; techniques in country one-teacher schools. In fact, thousands of educators of all levels come here from Asia, Africa, the Pacific, even South America, to study these and other subjects. (As well as many for other fields of study.) A number of these the W.E.F. manages to welcome each year; one way in which every year is International Year for W.E.F.

Meetings. The Assembly was arranged and all meetings hosted by the Australian Teachers' Federation, assisted by its New South Wales component, with utmost consideration to convenience of participants, all for $A2 each. Credit must be given to Secretariat members

Miss Elisabeth Boucherant, Paris, and Wm. Ulrich, U.S.A., Special Assistant for Asia, who never ceased coping with details of organization in a strange country with amazing facility. The whole was complicated by almost half the eventual representatives not having returned the appropriate form indicating approximately when and how many were likely to arrive, what sort of accommodation required, etc., up till one week before the Assembly. Many flew in unannounced expecting everything ready for them, though they were not on the computer list (a disaster in the modern world!)

Associated congresses of the International Reading Association; International Council on Health, Physical Education and Recreation; and International Council on Education for Teaching, as well as WCOTP. School Librarian's, Adult Education, Technical and Vocational and Audio-Visual Committees were held, all welcoming each other's participants.

Most of the meetings were held in the well-appointed convention floor of the new Wentworth Hotel, which, fittingly, bears the name of one of the first great Australians, father of both self-government and Sydney University. A carpeted grand ballroom seated the large plenary sessions but partitions were pulled out of the wall, forming two or three halls for smaller meetings. Walls, panelled in coffee brocade and wood are hung with tapestries showing crests of our capital cities and flags of Australian States. The ceiling is a fairyland, covered with 4-foot square mirrors, each set with four tennis-ball-like light globes.

Functions. The Australian Commonwealth and New South Wales State governments and Lord Mayor gave receptions. Teachers' associations organised a Sunday tour by seven buses south to the City of Greater Wollongong with a civic reception, boomerang throwing, sheep dog trials, surf board riding and abundant lunch in a new teachers' college. The Australian Teachers' Federation gave a splendid dinner and dance in the 'Round House' (student union) of the University of New South Wales, the architecture of which impressed visitors. Your W.E.F. member, as an International Observer, was invited to all these. The A.T.F. presented Sir Ronald and Lady Gould with Australian opals and overseas guests with a Capt. Cook bicentenary 50 cent coin in a case.

Displays and Visits. Excellent displays included original book illustrations; United Nations information; reading teaching material and Northern Territory Aboriginal children's arts and crafts, explained by five very young Aboriginal teachers. Thos. Cook & Son arranged reasonably priced pre- and post-conference tours ranging from the world's largest rock, in the desert, to the coral reef but these resulted in only one enquiry (with no address!) before and only a few during the Assembly, so did not eventuate. It was a pity that so many teachers, many of whom were actually on long vacation, flew across the world the day before and off again the day after, seeing little more of this continent than the Assembly room. The last day was given to visits to schools and other educational centres (it being Education Week in New South Wales) of visitors' special interests. The Audio-Visual Committee was to journey to the School of the Air at the desert silver city, Broken Hill, in the far west of NSW. Weather remained fine but chilly, due to dire drought inland.

Attendance. W.E.F. observer attended all plenary sessions of the Assembly and (with her reading-teacher husband alternating on the week end) all of the I.R.A. Some 600 delegates and observers, representing 118 associations in 48 countries (to a fairly final count) came for WCOTP. Many brought wives and children. A few hundred others came for associated meetings. The outgoing President, Sir Ronald Gould of Britain, claimed that WCOTP is the world's most widely representative non-government body — to teachers' credit. A number of overseas and interstate teachers were permitted to sit in as visitors with no special privileges. Several USA teachers were displeased that their association had suggested they attend the Assembly whilst touring Australia but had omitted to have them accredited as delegates or observers. Thus, the body could have been even more widely representative.

W.E.F. Observer, being a Sydney person, helped with pre-organization for a few days, and, in coffee breaks and social functions, made a point of talking with any lonely-looking visitors, as well as billeting a Californian teacher. So W.E.F. played its customary welcoming role.

Languages. WCOTP sessions were held in English, French, Spanish and Japanese by simultaneous translation, an arrangement not yet common in Australia, so at enormous cost. All papers were printed in the first three languages. Japanese was spoken very little, though there was a large Japanese contingent. Of course, individual machines sometimes ceased to function. Without one, your observer could grasp only a few words of Spanish but had no trouble following the gist of the beautifully modulated French of these experienced teachers. To do so was an unexpected pleasure in this continent where foreign languages have never been necessary and are not a popular study. Of course, observers can play no part in plenary sessions but it fell to yours (no doubt because of years of W.E.F. experience) to make a brief report from a small discussion group. The realization that it was instantly translated into Spanish ensured that one kept a rapid mental check on brevity, clarity and avoidance of Australian idiom.

The whole gathering, like a great W.E.F. function, demonstrated that devoted educators, however, speak the same fundamental language, regardless of their words, appearance or backgrounds. Friendships were instant. Each person was clearly labelled with name, country and job at the Assembly. At a function one Indian delegate pointed out that not all attending are experienced leaders, nor even well qualified teachers (in fact a few from poor countries received financial help), and that he had, some time ago, suggested that they should not be accepted. However, he had realized that such young people can benefit most and be inspired by such contacts.

Official Opening. Among musical items from schools, this was performed by the Prime Minister, who, mercifully, refrained, till the last few moments, from mentioning the multiple wonders his government had achieved in education (whatever their true purpose) and gave his personal version of 'The Qualities of a Teacher'. Although his words said that a secondary teacher required a deeper study of subject matter, he left the impression that he thought a shorter period of training (less costly for governments) would do for teaching juniors. This aroused some subsequent criticism.

Sir Ronald Gould, in his Presidential address, declared: ' "The qualities of a Teacher" is the most significant question facing governments, peoples and educators everywhere — the qualities of the teacher are the most important determinants of the quality of education.' He discussed five essential qualities, starting with knowing the subject and knowing children. 'Yes, it's difficult for teachers to see things through the eyes of the child, but they'll never become quality teachers until they do. Even more difficult is the teacher's task when the child's problems are quite unlike any he ever experienced.' Sir Ronald instanced broken homes and frustrations of low ability. 'In such circumstances, the quality teacher must draw on psychology and sociology and his inward resources of imagination, insight and compassion.' Technical efficiency in teaching methods and 'indefinable but recognisable personality' and being 'a moral crusader', i.e. 'right human relationships in every sphere' would lead to 'a new dignity, a new professionalism.' Sir Ronald called on governments to help produce teachers with these qualities. 'After that it's up to the teachers. They must then decide whether their qualities are to be used unstintingly to provide children with a quality education.' He pledged teachers to do so.

For some reason, the Press quoted the Prime Minister but did not even mention the presence of Sir Ronald. In fact, reports of the whole Assembly were few, brief and distorted.

Discussion at Sessions. After preliminary general business, Dr Irvamae Applegate of Minnesota gave a synthesis of reports from 35 member organizations towards the theme, 'Qualities of a Teacher'. They had been asked to report on these in connection with entry to

training; admission to the profession; continued employment and further education; promotion. Reports indicated: 'we are all struggling with the same problem — how to develop and identify the essential 'Qualities of a Teacher'. Dr Applegate pointed out that this Assembly enables members to learn what each other have achieved and what mistakes have been made in reaching desired goals. She urged the Assembly to be 'productive of thought'. Discussion came under the headings:

1. **Professional and Academic.** Brother Brennan of Canada immediately criticised the Prime Minister's ideas because 'all teachers need high level education'. Mr Bennett of Western Australia: 'All teachers need specific academic training for the kind of teaching they are going to do . . . and dedication.' Mr Haines, South Australia: 'Teachers must set the standards which governments should expect in teachers, not vice versa.' These beliefs were supported by speakers from a wide range of countries and, indeed, were stressed throughout the Assembly.

2. **Ethical and Moral.** Mr Cumberbatch of Barbados listed a set of ethics for teacher-pupil, teacher-teacher, teacher-community, etc., relationships, but an Indian priest denied that a person can vary his own set of principles according to the situation. A Western Australian delegate stressed: 'A teacher cannot be ethical in a corrupt society; he has to direct his energy to making ethical the corrupt society.' He has the 'ethical function of taking a positive lead in the vital political problems of our time' (not necessarily what a government wants). There is not enough opportunity for 'free-ranging political thought, without which no teacher can behave ethically'. Though an Indian pointed out that the profession should not live in isolation, a useless discussion on the need for a code of ethics followed. (Asian region of WCOTP has a code.) Mrs Fay Saunders, Jamaica (hostess for 1971 Assembly) asked for a practical suggestion as to how millions of rank and file members and new teachers could be induced to read such a code. The matter was dropped when Mr Haines drew attention to the anomaly of talking about teachers being responsible, professional people yet wanting to impose a code of ethics. Rather, teachers must 'ensure they are at the very centre of education, in the forefront of planning, a strong voice recognised as such; they should have from governments the same power to discipline and control members as other professions.' He urged the Assembly to come up with a strong recommendation for a Teachers' Bill of Rights.

3. **Social and Community Relationship.** The Chairman, from the National Education Association, USA, explained that, for every teacher who violates an ethical code, there are a thousand cases of the community, private and government, violating teachers' rights. The N.E.A. is spending millions of dollars in legal defence and developing teachers' rights. A booklet of cases won in court is being printed 'in simple language for superintendents to read'.

At this point the meeting (about one third of Assembly, using English and Spanish) decided it must break into very small discussion groups. It fell to your observer to report from a group of nine US and Australian ladies, as follows. Modern transport can take teachers, in their free time, away from the community where they teach. Relationships with the community vary according to its size. A teacher can be quite isolated in a large metropolis. At the other extreme, the two Aborigine girls teaching their own people on a remote mission station are wholly involved with the community in welfare work, race, religion, language etc. In small towns teachers can become so involved with town activities (e.g. being secretary of the tennis club was quoted) and are expected to be so that they can be isolated from cultural achievements, teachers' associations, world movements. Also their personal behaviour is under constant scrutiny; they are expected to be leaders and set a high moral standard. Despite this, the US ladies explained, the local community determines the teachers' salaries (on a set State minimum); the high standard expected can result in less pay in one area than another. The Victorians explained they have won the right to ask to

teach in a particular area and not be transfered without consent, whereas New South Wales teachers, generally speaking, are sent wherever they are needed.

A Paraguay delegate spoke with some distress of teachers coming from the margin of working class homes but teaching children of higher income groups in better residential areas, yet they cannot afford to live among them, or even have to live where the government house has been built for a teacher.

Reports from Associated Organizations. The incoming Secretary-General, Mr J. Thompson of Britain, reported on relationships with the International Labor Organisation, with which WCOTP will hold a seminar on the work of teachers' associations in promoting welfare of teachers, in Barbados at the end of March 1971.

M. Michael, Switzerland, reported for the International Federation of the Teachers' Associations, a synthesis of salary determinations in many countries. The importance of negotiation was stressed for, as Mr Elliott, England, put it: 'Teachers' children cannot be fed on dedication.' The programme formulated by the IFTA July 1970 Geneva Congress declares that, because the right of education for all is proclaimed by the Declaration of Human Rights, 'the working conditions, remuneration and social security of teachers must correspond to the importance of their social function'.

The 40th Congress of FIPESO at Lausanne, July 1970, considers that 'Democracy in Secondary Education' in school 'is inseparable from the democratisation of education, . . . a measure of social justice but also an economic necessity. It implies profound changes in structure, methods, content and aims of secondary education which must now be adapted to the needs and aspirations of the whole age group regardless of class or ability . . . This evolution makes it necessary for teachers, parents and pupils to participate in varying degrees in the democratic life of the school and to assume their share of responsibility for defining the purpose and shape of secondary education and for ensuring that the means of implementation are available. Schools should be protected from political and social pressures which would disrupt their normal functions. School democracy is not an end in itself. It must always be seen in the context of the democratic development of contemporary society.'

M. Ebert of UNESCO, Paris, in presenting a report of UNESCO:WCOTP relations, stressed that teachers must have full freedom to join unions of their choosing; the same civil, social and economic rights as fellow citizens; the right to academic freedom and to bargain collectively. (See A7, Working papers.)

A moment's silence was observed on learning of the untimely death of John Dwyer, past-president of the New Zealand Institute, who had worked hard at previous assemblies.

Status of Teachers. A resumé of reports gives some interesting snippets. Dr Chung of Korea said high status was more apparent than real, due to failure of teacher training and he 'could not give his daughter to marry a teacher'. Mrs Helen Baines, USA, urged all to make a concerted effort towards the establishment of qualifications for entry; licensing of all; removal of incompetents (we will gladly accept this responsibility when we have control of entry'): no US teachers have these rights and should ask 'Why not?' Dr Leocadio, Philippines, spoke of a 'Magna Carta' for teachers, with a B.Sc. in Education necessary for elementary teaching. He claimed his association insists on the right to consent to transfer, transfer expenses; no transfer three months before a national election; no discrimination.

Mr Wiltshire, Britain, declared teachers 'can play a full part in educational advancement only if they play a greater part at local, regional and national level'. The President of the Kenya National Union (40,000 teachers) said a Teachers' Commission, being one employer for all teachers, was achieved by his Union. However, there are 45 to 50 children per class and teachers walk up to ten miles to school so asked the Assembly 'to pray for them'. He invited the Assembly to Kenya for

1973 and, later, acknowledged help from several countries and appealed for technicians. Mrs Doris Banks Henries of Liberia described in-service workshops throughout the country, attended by teachers on full pay (and substitutes paid); there is study of curriculum in teacher education and improvements in salaries.

In Brazil, due to WCOTP, the I.L.O. recommendation was implemented. The association communicated with all State governments, resulting in a federal law guaranteeing a minimum wage. Mr Kimura of Japan Teachers' Union is trying to establish teachers' right to do work related to teaching only; to eliminate 'peripheral work — classed as night duty and day duty'; to vacation; to a year's nursing leave for women — all presented to the National Diet. A Liberation Commission has been established; they have to democratise education for the future of children. In Trinidad, a Teaching Service Commission has been set up; teachers want to be separate from other public servants and have discussed a 42-statement policy. They participate in all curriculum development. As Secretary of the Carribean Teachers' Union, his delegate wanted more discussion for the 1971 Barbados seminar.

As Dr Chung had introduced the term 'hen-pecked', Sir Ronald, in summing up, described teaching as 'the most hen-pecked of all professions in terms of inhibiting authorities'. Unless it is freed from so many petty frustrations, such as the time book and constant visits by authority to make sure teachers are getting on with the job, teachers 'never will be able to look doctors, lawyers and architects in the face'. They should enter and remain in the profession out of completely free choice. He described the 'mouse-trap technique' to catch and hold secondary leavers as 'cheap-hire', teaching in the trap for three to seven years 'till you have paid back to the community what the community has bestowed upon you'. Other professions have no 'mouse-trap'.

Programme for 1971. Mr Thompson, introducing this, hoped for WCOTP to be a 'dynamic organism not a superior being; a reality not a dream', serving as many as possible of its membership. Areas for study are Status of teachers; rural education; school of the future (under contract with UNESCO, following International Education Year); power of teachers' associations; equality of opportunity through education (Hamilton, New Zealand, following Sydney Assembly); teachers' travel programmes, on an intercontinental basis. Various regional seminars, publications and other forms of assistance are in the budget. Unfortunately, WCOTP is in dire need of member associations paying their dues. Each is asked to consult its government as to what is being done in use of satellites for communication and, potentially, education.

M. Drubay, France, Mr Whalan, New South Wales and a British delegate urged continued efforts to induce all teachers to join; whatever the politics, religion, colour, race or other divisions, teaching is the common bond. It seems Mr Thompson has made repeated efforts, but mechanics of communication had broken down (he mentioned Cuba and China); he had spoken recently with an officer of Soviet teachers. Japan Teachers' Union has undertaken to bring up-to-date status of teacher recommendations. Dr Bhan asked WCOTP to bear in mind assistance as India's 550 million rise to a probable 1,000 million by the year 2000, with a network of workshops and teachers' organisations needed to produce hundreds of thousands of teachers and schools.

Mr Campos Sandi, Costa Rica, wanted the budget to provide for more powerful representation in controversial regions. With such bitterness that it was difficult to follow the translation, he told of a teacher 'rotting' in gaol in Panama for four months without accusation. On WCOTP advice, Mr Campos Sandi went to Panama, but, without credentials, the general in power not only took no heed of a WCOTP cable but had Mr Campos Sandi taken to gaol.

Resolutions. Many hours were given to framing resolutions on the lines of all this discussion in terms that satisfied shades of meaning in three languages. Bear in mind that, for example, some Africans working in French, were

using their second language rather than their own local one. This sometimes led to further confusion. However, there was little real division of opinion till the sentence: 'His professional organisation should provide encouragement and opportunities for the continued development of the desired qualities.' About half the delegates felt the professional organisation, in keeping with the desire to control the standards of the profession, should so provide the refresher courses, etc. Mr Alonso of the National Education Association, in particular, stated that his organisation provides many courses for teachers and would continue to do so. Others, especially the Australians, firmly believed governments should bear the cost. Eventually, the words: 'and that the employing authority should provide the finance and time' were added. A section on Teacher Status stressed full civil rights. By special request a resolution on Protection of School Children was added, urging governments to adopt agreements affording the same special protection, in armed conflict, to schools and school children as to hospitals and ambulances.

1971 XX Assembly. Mr Thompson introduced the theme, 'Rural Education' for the 1971 Assembly in Kingston, Jamaica. He declared that: ' "Rural Education" in the sense of education designed for people in rural areas is morally wrong, practically useless and educationally unsound. . . . What we need is rural education for all and urban education for all — in fact, a balanced education for all. The rural side is weak . . . '; hence the theme. He pointed out that all previous themes had 'a common thread—the demand that education should be based on Man and his relations to his fellow Man.' They propose 'to relate Man and his fellow Man to their natural surroundings.' 'Promoting change democratically is itself a major educational endeavour.' Mr Thompson hopes some thought will be given to ways by which students 'excited' by environmental problems can contribute to their solution in their post-school careers.

Closing Ceremonies. The Nigerian delegate expressed thanks for financial help from various associations towards their recovery from war. M. Michel of IFTA and Sir Ronald were given the Wm. Russell Medal. Flags were passed to the Jamaicans, who read a message of welcome from their Minister of Education. Mrs Saunders explained that Jamaica has seventeen women teachers to every three men and that their present President had become a Privy Councillor. The 1972 Assembly was invited to London. Dr Wm. Carr, USA, former Secretary-General, became the new President. Speeches and presentations from various regions were made to Sir Ronald on his retirement and Vice-President, Mr Adiko of the Ivory Coast (where the last Assembly was held at Abidjan) presented Sir Ronald and Lady Gould with a silver tray, from WCOTP, Sydney 1970. In his reply, Sir Ronald maintained that WCOTP is making much more progress than appears from year to year.

International Reading Association. Meanwhile associated meetings had concluded. The Director-General of Education in New South Wales, Mr Verco, greeted the I.R.A. Dr Helen Huus, Missouri, declared that 'To teach all to read is the most pressing problem in the world today.' Later, Mrs Kathleen Clayton, New York, supported this, pointing out that literacy rate does not keep pace with population increase and there are probably 750 million illiterates, the number rising steadily. Functional literacy is based on the 4th Grade level; it should be raised to 9th Grade level. There is adult illiteracy when there is no written material available. Dr Harris, Washington, spoke of diversity and many variables in reading research. He thinks many workers carry unwarranted relationships from results at one level to another. Eve Malmquist, Sweden, stressed that, as language, thought and behaviour are interrelated, it is necessary to prevent reading disabilities if possible, so early diagnosis is of importance. Dr Smith, California, suggested the need to examine reading readiness; perhaps children can learn to read before the mental age of six years. D. Holdaway, New Zealand, suggested that a study of an analysis of the characteristics of normal and good readers may yield vital data which could assist the remedial reading teacher. Participants were all enthusiastic, skilled teachers.

XIX Assembly, Sydney 1970 WCOTP Resolutions, adopted as amended

A. Qualities of a Teacher

PREAMBLE

Believing that the quality of education in any country depends upon the qualities of the teachers;

Believing that the stature of any people and their quality of life depends upon the quality of education;

Believing that adequate numbers of teachers with the desired qualities can be secured when there is the proper support;

This Assembly stresses the need for careful identification and examination of the desired qualities of a teacher and of ways to recruit and retain individuals with these qualities.

This Assembly recognises the changing role and responsibilities of the teacher and the implications this has for the qualities of a teacher which are innate or acquired through training and experience.

This Assembly has discussed and defined the qualities of a teacher in regard to (1) Professional and Academic (2) Ethical and Moral and (3) Society and Community Relationship.

This Assembly recommends that:

I.

The preparation of the teacher should include the development of a complex combination of intellectual and academic and professional skills and personal qualities. All children deserve excellent teachers and all teachers need an equally high level of preparation to develop the necessary qualities to educate their nation's youth. The qualities of the teacher cannot be easily defined but largely result from such qualifications as a high level of general education, knowledge of the theory and practice of pedagogy, knowledge of his teaching field and an understanding of the environment and social influences affecting the learners. Technical and vocational teachers must have practical experience of satisfactory quality and sufficient length to ensure their pedagogical effectiveness.

II.

The qualities of the teacher should continue to be developed throughout the period of his professional practice. During his professional career, the teacher should continue to add to his knowledge and practice in order to further develop the qualities deemed essential during initial preparation.

Further, the teacher should strive to mature in skills pertaining to relations with pupils, other teachers, the administration, his professional organisation, and the community. His professional organisation should provide encouragement for the continued development of the desired qualities and that the employing authority provide finance and time.

III.

The teaching education profession should have the authority to establish and control the standards and policies for admission to and continuation in professional practice. Recruitment and selection should be based upon personal aptitude without regard to race, creed, sex, political or socio-economic background. Conditions of work, including salary, status and the availability of resources, should be such as to attract and retain the highest quality of individuals.

IV.

The teacher must possess high personal qualities of an intellectual and ethical character, which are either natural, acquired or developed during his initial training or throughout his career. The teacher's personal as well as professional life must be always aware that he is a model for the pupils. The parents as well as the entire community are always attentive to the teacher's comportment. The love

of children, faith in his vocation, personal devotion and commitment are equally indispensable, as is courage in all difficult situations. Patience, intellectual curiosity, critical thinking and tolerance are also essential because the teacher must in his work respect the child in his charge and help the child to develop his individuality. These qualities must be supported by good physical and mental balance, a good sense of humour and enthusiasm which will encourage learning.

V.

The teacher serves the world community through the school; there are certain basic qualities that the teacher must possess in order to be an effective agent for development, which are:

Good physical and mental health.

Leadership and ability to work with others. The teacher is looked upon for leadership in rural and urban areas. This quality in the teacher facilitates the participation of all citizens in the social and economic development of communities.

The qualities of adaptability, tolerance and understanding needed by teachers within the framework of the expanding concept of our community are essential. Teachers should broaden the role of the schools and the scope of their profession.

VI.

Each member organisation should establish a code of professional ethics which takes into consideration the foregoing qualities of a teacher and make it known to its members in order to contribute to their ethical and professional training.

B. Unesco Relations

The WCOTP Assembly notes the report of the Joint UNESCO/ILO Expert Committee on the Application of the Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers, welcomes the conclusions and endorses in particular the paragraph calling for international as well as national action to further the implementation of the Recommendation.

C. Protection of School Children

In view of recent tragedies involving the death and wounding of school children as a result of armed conflict, and to avoid its repetition in the future, the Assembly declares that the special protections afforded to hospitals and ambulances by international agreements and customs (such as the Annex to The Hague Convention of 18 October 1907 and the Geneva Convention of 12 August 1949) should be extended to schools and school vehicles.

The Assembly approves the initiatives in this matter already taken by the Secretary General, and urges that the consultations on the subject between the Secretariats and the United Nations and Unesco be expedited.

The Assembly suggests that all national teachers' organizations urge their respective governments to develop and approve such agreements.

D. Teacher Status

This Assembly considers that the implementation of the Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers depends above all on the recognition by all governments:

(a) That teachers should enjoy the same civil rights as their fellow citizens;

(b) of the right of teachers to enjoy the freedom (amended towards that come into line with French) of association;

(c) of the right of negotiation on a basis of equality between the representative organisations of teachers and the authorities which employ their members on all questions concerning educational policy, the determination of teacher remuneration, social security and working conditions.

Consequently this Assembly appeals to all its member organizations to do everything possible to achieve these rights in their countries, and ensure them of the full WCOTP support in this field.

(held over till December issue, WCOTP report on 1971 Theme Rural Education).

BOOK REVIEWS

Schools and Youth Service in the Community

Peter Pykett
C.E.Y.C. Church House, S.W.1. pp. 30. 5s.

Peter Pykett, School and Community Officer of the Church of England Youth Council, has succinctly summarised in this useful booklet the results of a survey by a working party from 1967-69.

He reviews the relationship between schools and the youth service in the field of social education, stresses the need for partnership, and illustrates through a series of particular examples. He develops the thesis of the Schools Council Working Paper No. 2, the idea of a co-operative programme of research and development in Local Centres, in which teachers, youth leaders, social workers, and others would work together in partnership.

He is critical of subsequent Working Paper No. 10, in which this community-based conception gives way to the more narrowly professional-based development of Teachers' Centres. On the other hand, a number of recent Working Papers stress the need for school and community links and for inter-professional collaboration.

The booklet is admirably documented and retains the list of references and the bibliography of the extensive Report, unpublished but available, on which it is based.

It offers a practical and realistic basis for discussion of problems that are currently engaging the interests of the ENEF under the themes of 'weaving education into the social fabric', the Living-Learning Environment, and the Participating Community.

Raymond King.

The Question of Play

Joyce McLellan
Pergamon Press. 20s.

My first acquaintance with Mrs McLellan's book, 'The Question of Play' raised two other questions in my mind. How had she coped with the problem of considering a vast topic like play in a slim volume of less than 100 pages, and for whom was such a book intended? Fuller reading provided the answers.

Mrs McLellan, by succinctness and selectivity, has produced what is essentially a simple, but wide ranging introduction to the subject, covering important aspects which are likely to be of interest to students, young teachers and parents.

The book is divided into two sections, each of which is followed by a very useful bibliography for further reading. Part 1 is concerned with a brief consideration of theories of play ancient and modern, . . . 'in the newer theories there is embodied a certain amount from 'older theories' and in order to appreciate the more modern outlook it is necessary to consider what the nineteenth century writers had to contribute,' she says, and there follows a glimpse of the ideas of Groos, Hall, Froebel and Spencer.

Similarly, twentieth century theories are dealt with, including the work of Margaret Lowenfield, Gesell, Anna Freud, Melanie Klein, Susan Isaacs and Piaget.

Throughout the book one is conscious of Mrs McLellan's conviction, which I share, that play in the early years is essential for satisfactory development. Her recommendation that children should receive some pre-school experience in play-groups or preferably in nursery schools, where proper provision for the necessary early experiences can be made, will cheer those who consider the extension of nursery school places to be a priority issue. A measure of her concern that all children should have these experiences and be encouraged to play is revealed in her statement — 'Further education for the children of secondary age is useless if the firm foundations of early learning through play are neglected or in fact, missing altogether.'

In her consideration of play in the post-war world (p.25) she touches on a most important point arising out of the research of Gesell and his warning of the danger of curtailing the time and space for free spontaneous play which is 'essential for full mental growth', by the intrusion of mass media. Goulart expresses the same concern — 'Much of the grown-up world still fails to fully acknowledge that children are going anywhere, that they are in process and not locked into childhood, that their existence has significance. The mass men, because of where they place their emphasis, reinforce the idea that childhood is pointless, a time only for indulgence and chaos. Childhood has to be much more, however; unless a child is to remain forever ungrown inside.'

'Man does not grow automatically like a tree,' observes Rollo May, 'but fulfills his potentialities only as he in his own conscious plans and chooses. Fortunately the long protracted period of infancy and childhood in human life . . . prepares the child for his difficult task. He is able to acquire some knowledge and inner strength so that, as he must begin to choose and decide he has some capability for it.'

Mrs McLellan rightly points out the need children have for time to assimilate experiences to think about things, and she applauds the modern trend to provide alcoves and small areas in schools, in which children can obtain this privacy. Designers of open-plan schools would do well not to lose sight of this very important requirement. 'We must keep in mind that every step in personal growth needs isolation', writes psychiatrist Joost Meerloo, 'needs inner conversation and a reviewing with the self. Television hampers this process and prepares the mind more easily for collectivisation and cliche thinking.'

The two chapters concerned with the significance of play in the Infant school and opportunity for play in the Junior school, are full of information and suggestions which will prove enlightening and helpful to those who do not possess a deep understanding of the role of play

in the learning process. In this section, Mrs McLellan reveals not only her extensive knowledge of education at these ages, but also her real understanding of children themselves.

This book has something to offer to the reader who has children, teaches children or simply feels a genuine interest in the development of the young.

John Hilyer.

John Hilyer is senior lecturer in education at Redland College, Bristol.

He is married and has two children.

He has ten years' teaching experience, six of them in a college of education.

Editorial

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Owing to pressure on space we have had to hold over several interesting articles until December, including one on the social dynamics of education by Bob Richer, and an assessment of W. B. Curry by John Punch. So that our December issue will by no means end 'not with a bang but a whimper' but will be able to face the general plentiful cheer of Christmas without apology. In fact it will make good vacation reading. We offer to our readers the compliments of the season and we thank our contributors to this issue. Please give a New Era subscription to your friends for Christmas.

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WORLD STUDIES BULLETIN

NUMBER 17 DECEMBER 1970

advisors to the Bulletin: **Lord Boyle of Handsworth, H. L. Elvin, A. A. Evans, Professor G. L. Goodwin, Sir Ronald Gould, Terence Lawson**

EDITORIAL

On 1st December 1970 The Rt. Hon. Lord Boyle of Handsworth, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Leeds made awards to prize-winners in the World Community Heroes Competition at a ceremony held at Crosby Hall, Chelsea. First Prize went to a young French student-teacher, second to the Principal of a College of Education in India, third to a British teacher from Northampton, and fourth to a teacher from Ceylon: these prizes took the form of foreign travel for the prizewinners. Small token awards were also made to entrants from Malaysia, Malta, Hungary, Senegal, U.S.A., France, Ceylon, India and Brazil. Altogether there were over 5,000 entries: the names of the prizewinners, the heroes chosen and other information about the competition will be available early in 1971 in a booklet which is now being prepared — enquiries for this should be made to the editor.

As usual the items in this number range across the globe — the U.S.A., Canada, India, Northern Ireland, the U.S.S.R., Australia: they provide testimony to the vigour with which groups of human beings all over the world are giving the lie to the charge of banality on which Saul Bellow arraigns modern man in 'Mr Sammler's Planet': 'Banality is the adopted disguise of a very powerful will to abolish conscience.' Conscience has manifestly not yet been abolished. December 1970.

I. UNIVERSITIES & COLLEGES

A. Northern Counties College of Education

Newcastle-upon-Tyne, England

The Wisconsin Enterprise
Student Exchange between Wisconsin State University and Northern Counties College of Education.

During a short invited lecture engagement at the Institute of International Development and Studies, Wisconsin State University in the summer of 1969 the suggestion arose that exchange of Wisconsin students with History students from Northern Counties College was possible, practicable and desirable. In further discussions, both in Wisconsin and here at home, the education authorities at College, Institute, University and DES have proved uniformly encouraging.

By Christmas 1969 we were in a position to be discussing which four third-year students of the College should have the opportunity to spend their third year in Wisconsin State University. It was agreed that the exchange should be in the first place limited to History students on both sides.

In February Dr C. Robert Frost, Director of the Institute of International Development and Studies, paid a short visit to Newcastle and in personal discussion, most of the final details were settled. On his return he picked his team of four History majors.

The exchange is based on an exchange of facilities in kind. The American University is responsible for the tuition, residence and

'pocket money' of the British students in Wisconsin. The English College has a responsibility to provide similar facilities for the American students here. Thus the only cost to be borne by the students is the transatlantic fare. We are, in fact, similarly making a mutual transfer of resources and thus 'no ugly question of money arises'!

In the academic sense the Northern Counties College provides a range of courses in History and related subjects acceptable to the authorities in Wisconsin and attracting the 'credits' which the American students need to achieve their degree. The English students in America are supervised in the departments of International Relations, Political Science and History. They submit a thesis and a number of essays in International Affairs for evaluation in England. Thus effectively the American student completes a full year of his degree course in Northern Counties College; and the British student completes the final year of his course in Wisconsin State University. The advantages of the exchange seems quite a manifest profit in themselves in terms of Anglo-American understanding.

The fact that it is, we hope, of advantage to both sides in an academic sense, and at nominal monetary cost, seems to us good reason for the continuation and possible extension of this exchange project.

Let me put into practical terms what so far I have discussed in hopeful theory. Let me admit right away that on both sides we have been careful in choosing our volunteers, in America by computer, in England by Committee as befits our national characters.

Four third year English trainee teachers arrived in Wisconsin in early September to start the 'fall semester'. During the course of the year they will write dissertations on (a) the Cornish and Cumbrian influence on Metal Mining in Wisconsin. (b) The Solution of the Indian problem in Wisconsin. (c) Prohibition in the Middle West, and (d) Mormons in Wisconsin. At the same time they are following suitable courses in the various University departments. They will have a long teaching practice in the American Schools. Socially we hear that two of them have been playing football throughout the three neighbouring states.

The 'Mormon' student has already done some field work in Salt Lake City and the 'Metal Miner' has already become part of the School of Mines at Platteville.

Four young Americans are at present enlivening the Northern Counties College campus. They are taking courses in History, Geography, English and Education and will sample the delights of the northern schools on a long teaching practice in November and December. One has joined the Rugby Club and is teaching American Wrestling to our more enthusiastic types. Judging by the black eye he is sporting this week, it appears that both sides are enthusiastic. There has been a certain amount of reconnaissance of the mediaeval castles of Northumberland, the Roman Wall, and the Lake District, and all are planning to see a good deal more of England during the vacation.

At the moment, and it is early days yet, the hopes we had seem to have a fair prospect of success. Certainly comparative education would be something of practice rather than of theory to these eight young people.

John Wright.

B. Scarborough College, Toronto, Canada

Invitation to British Schools

For the past three years the history teachers in the fourteen collegiate institutes (high schools) of Scarborough, a borough of Metropolitan Toronto, have held an annual Spring Conference for the senior students of Grades 12 and 13, ages from 16 to 18. The purpose of the conferences is to stimulate in the students an awareness of and an interest in major problems of current interest and concern. The topics of the first three conferences have been:

'Canada: One Nation or Two?' (1968)
'Understanding Mainland China' (1969)
'Canadian-American Relations: Trouble Ahead?' (1970)

Students have had the opportunity of hearing speakers and experts of the finest calibre; they have spent weeks studying the topic in classroom in preparation for the conference; and they have been able to test their ideas both on the speakers and on students invited from across Canada and from the north-eastern United States. The seminars have been for many students the most exciting part of the conference.

The conference next April (1971) will deal with some aspects of the Third World although the details of speakers and themes have not yet been worked out. It will be held in April, will probably last for two or perhaps three days. The participants will include 1,000 Scarborough students and probably 150 Americans and 150 Canadians from across Canada. We will also invite 50 West Indian students and 30 or so students from Great Britain. The students from outside Scarborough will be billeted in the homes of the Scarborough students. The visitors will be invited to spend four or five days in Scarborough visiting our classrooms, seeing the city of Toronto, attending the conference and enjoying the society of our young people.

This letter is directed to interested teachers in Britain who might be interested in planning a flight to Canada with a group of senior students. I recognise that a trip of such length and cost cannot be justified on the basis of four or five days in Toronto. However, we now have contacts with other schools in the United States and Canada which could enable you to plan a very interesting and worthwhile trip.

You might consider an itinerary which would hit as wide a cultural spectrum as possible over a two to three week period. Perhaps visits could be arranged at Quebec City (French-Canadian), Montreal (mixed French and English-Canadian), Ottawa (capital), Toronto (conference on Third World), Chicago (or some other mid-west location), back to Washington D.C., Philadelphia, ending up in New York. From there fly directly home to Britain.

Tancock.

(Anyone interested should contact the Editor immediately).

II. SCHOOLS

Ulster: School Community Relations Project

A communication from its Director,
J. M. Malone, 2nd Floor, Bedford House,
Bedford Street, Belfast, BT2 7FD.

During the past nine months or so my main areas of activity have been:
1. Encouraging joint projects between young school leavers in Catholic and Protestant schools: some have been quite successful particularly in Newry, Derry, and the Ardoyne district of Belfast.

2. Encouraging a humane organisation within secondary schools particularly in difficult areas. We had, for instance, a one-day conference on Organisation for Individuals which was attended by 80% of secondary heads.

3. Encouraging the establishment of Field Centres: the two Catholic and Protestant schools in Ardoyne have acquired a Centre jointly and a number of other schools individually.

4. Linking up with Schools Council projects particularly the Moral Education one in Oxford and the General Studies one in York. We have made good progress with the Moral Education one and are preparing a special section for use in Northern Ireland in co-operation with the Project director and a lecturer from St. Mary's College of Education has been seconded for six months to work on it.

We are hoping to produce a General Studies 'package' on Northern Ireland fairly soon for use in senior forms of grammar, technical and secondary schools.

At the request of the Education Advisory Committee of the Parliamentary Group for World Government the Methodist Education Committee in London has donated £450 towards the expenses of Mrs Kelly of Methodist College, who is engaged in helping to assemble material for the kit.

III. ORGANISATIONS

T.E.A.M. International Summer School, 1971

Challenges to Modern Society

International Summer School, St. Edmund Hall, Oxford University, 17th—27th August. The aim in 1971 of this annual Summer School is to examine some of the many contemporary challenges to modern society, with particular reference to the Western World. A distinguished panel of speakers will discuss, according to their respective specialisms, such problems as environmental pollution, the revolt of youth, racial disharmony, economic imbalance, industrial strife, resurgent nationalism, international violence and the possible perils of biological, chemical and thermonuclear wars. Lecturers and guest speakers will be drawn from leading authorities in several countries who are prominent in the fields of economics and industrial relations, ecology, sociology, education, religion, technology and defence. Thus, a whole spectrum of high-level views on these vital matters is offered to participants.

The School is supported by the OECD and NATO, the Council of Europe, the European Community and EFTA. The language of the course will be English. Applications are invited from lecturers and teachers of relevant subjects, journalists, voluntary workers and opinion formers in related fields. To accepted members, a bursary of £20 reduces the cost from £57 to £37, for a single room in Hall, full board and tuition. Prospectus and application form from T.E.A.M. (The European-Atlantic Movement), 7 Cathedral Close, EXETER, Devon, England.

The Missionary Brothers of Charity

Humanity in Calcutta

'A man is more precious for what he is than for what he has'

(A young Britisher explores the Service side of World Studies)

I went out to Calcutta to teach the English language at school and college level in a Ramakrishnan Mission Ashram. It was during my first few months there that I came into contact with the Missionary (Brothers) of Charity. There were a couple of V.S.O. volunteers from Britain at the ashram, and I had been invited to lunch at the British Council one Sunday with one of them. There was another guest who was a Jesuit Father, or so I gathered. It was difficult to tell because he was dressed much as I was, in flip-flop rubber thongs, well worn drill trousers, a bush shirt, with a shoulder bag. He had just moved into a house in one of the dock area slums of Calcutta with a handful of Indian 'brothers'. It was a new venture in which he was instructing them for vows into lay brotherhood. Previously they had been with Mother Theresa and her 'sisters'. This was to be an attempt to formalise the set-up. Whether they would be in Delhi or Calcutta, what they would do and how they would do it was merely speculative at that stage. Hence they were trying to find out why they wanted to work with the poor, what helping the poor meant, what they could do — such a small, inexperienced, untrained and unequipped group. They had decided to live in a slum and get to know its inhabitants to see what that told them about a concern to live amongst them and serve them.

After lunch we cycled back to the house to see it all and talk a bit more. It was a typical slum, a brick and plaster building in a dilapidated state. It lay down a little lane that had probably once been an approach road but which had become a slum alley. Inside the rickety gates was a small band of joyful children, who had been 'picked up' at the railway stations. They had attached themselves to the brothers, and it was their home. Here was a

small oasis of happy, cheerful, kindly faces and gentle voices. As we listened and talked this impression deepened. They spoke of some of the immediate things that circumstances had asked of them — medical first aid — from cuts and sores to leprosy, and pavement schools where the traffic moved around them as they sat on one side of the street or in some corner. They felt compelled humbly and gently to seek to know these people and discover what it was about their circumstances that urged the brotherhood to live and be there trying to ascertain what being human to others in such a mass predicament entailed.

One of the reasons I was intrigued in this brotherhood was my own concern to be in something in this way rather than the more formal type of schooling that I had already begun work in. However, nothing more came of such thoughts until a year and a half later. My own teaching load had been halved, so I began to look round for something else to do. My search led me back to Mother Theresa and the Missionaries of Charity. I went and saw a Father Andrew, and it was only after the conversation came round to the matter of a visit that I realised why he was familiar. He and his group had moved into a slightly larger and less dilapidated looking house, and I spent an hour or so two or three afternoons a week teaching the new brothers English for six months. Some evenings I went out with them distributing food and to a couple of other houses from which work was carried out.

By the time I was due to leave India I felt I wanted to join the brothers on a more permanent basis. The step was right in itself, I felt, and time would show what I would do. I accompanied the brothers on their rounds on foot and in a micro-bus helping with first aid and tending of lepers, more than a thousand of them a week, cleaning sores, dressing them, giving injections or tablets and distributing milk powder. With one brother I went to a railway station, looking first for dead or dying and then finding the little urchins and orphans to treat with medicine, give them a wash and cut their hair. I went to the home for destitute and dying, all the time in the train of the brothers.

Well, things develop; I started trying to find out about films and the necessary equipment so that we might develop sessions around them in which to explore and learn in various areas of our work, in which to probe the business of the human condition both within the context of Calcutta as well as in other parts of India and other countries: this struck us as an evolutionary and environmental issue very relevant to our own inner life — something that would be in accord with spiritual training for lay brothers trying to find a life of service and devotion among their fellows. Another area they opened out was a concern for the development of practical activities in our community life by means of home industries and skills. Keeping chickens, for instance was a means whereby people in cramped and inadequate environments could eke out a living and succeed a little better with the wherewithal for their existence. Then there were the friends and other resources outside our immediate circle, also the tiny schools in various parts of the slums.

By this time the brotherhood had grown to about ninety, much more definite, less free and informal than the little household of two years earlier. Two characteristics struck me in the brotherhood: first, the incredible insignificance of any one brother's presence, his efforts among the people he visited, his freedom to be whatever it was in him to be in such situations as those in which he found himself, the response called forth and the fundamental inadequacies of that individual self in the face of such total situations. The second characteristic was central to the very nature of the brotherhood — an active presence within the slums as a penetrating spirit. It was painful and tormenting to be torn by the desperate needs of individuals and families, distressing to be diverted by one's own studies, however real and valid these were for better service we could hope to render as a result of them.

Then after nine months I had to go into hospital in England and all question of returning within a couple of years became impossible

on medical grounds. What had been accomplished? (1) We had begun our film sessions. (2) We had really met a great number of people intimately. (3) A couple of Bengali friends had begun work with children in another of the brothers' houses. (4) A group of people had started week-end work camps to rebuild and repair refugee homes. When I left, all of this was a lot of names and addresses or it had reached a point where adjustments were needed if it was going to continue as a valid contribution. As a free agent I was the only person who could devote the sort of time these things demanded. Yet it was not a feeling of dismay or distress that everything seemed to have come to a halt. The relevance of this experience was that it had made it possible for us to turn our attention to the unseen and unrealised: it was an extension of our being into the lives of others.

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IV. PUBLICATIONS

World Government — Illusion or Reality?

E. L. Kuzmin

A Critique of Bourgeois Conceptions of Sovereignty (Moscow 1969)

Kuzmin's book is not one which sheds any new light on the subject of world government. Indeed, it is not really a book about world government at all: it is, as its subtitle indicates, concerned with examining theories of integration as put forward by Western scholars and giving a critical appraisal. Not surprisingly the approach of the book is almost entirely negative. Once Western proposals for world government have been rejected, nothing positive or constructive is put in their place. Even so, such a work might have had more substance if Western points of view on the subject had been subjected to a cogent and reasoned argument by the author. Unfortunately, in no case does this happen: invariably any opinion is summarily dismissed on the grounds that it leads to the infringement of state sovereignty. Admittedly, many views and many authors are represented in this book which abounds in quotations. The elaborate exposition, however, is merely the occasion for Kuzmin to demonstrate his erudition and his wide reading in Western political thought.

As Kuzmin says in his introduction, it is natural that a Marxist writer should adopt a critical attitude towards bourgeois thinkers. But it is at the same time surprising that someone subscribing to such an ostensibly internationalist doctrine should refrain from upholding the principle of world government in a more explicit fashion. (The phrase 'world government' is almost everywhere in quotation marks.) It is also odd that one who professes Marxism, which is avowedly materialist, should invoke such a metaphysical-sounding conception as sovereignty to support his arguments. The bulk of the book in fact rests on the assumption that loss of sovereignty is always detrimental to the country concerned. This approach is completely alien to the professed spirit of Marxism which demands that every concrete instance of a phenomenon be considered on its own separate merits. Only at the very end of the book does Kuzmin admit that this principle operates, a principle which if it were applied consistently would invalidate his principal argument.

The section on the origin and development of the concept of sovereignty is most revealing. Sovereignty is traced from medieval political thought, through Rousseau to Hegel, but there is a deafening silence with regard to Marx and Engels. The latter of course, never made any pronouncements on the necessity for preserving state sovereignty. They would have rejected such abstractions as irrelevant and asked instead if federation of states helped or hindered the organization of the workers in their struggle against the bourgeoisie. Least of all would they have made any prognoses about the sovereignty of a socialist state with regard to other countries. For it never occurred to them that the situation would arise, since they always envisaged that the proletar-

ian revolution would take place at least in all the major European countries simultaneously.

There is a similar lacuna with regard to Lenin on sovereignty. Although he is quoted on several occasions, none of the quotations contribute anything towards fixing the concept of sovereignty in the canon of Marxist literature. Even the great legal theoretitian Stuchka, writing in 1921, devotes only two pages of a lengthy work on the state and constitution of the USSR to the whole question of state sovereignty. (One may note in passing, moreover, that he says almost as much in those two pages as Kuzmin does in his 198.)

It is significant too that in tracing the devolopment of the concept of sovereignty in the works of Russian scholars, those whom Kuzmin finds most useful are the ones who were most hostile to Marxism. Chicherin, whom he cites with approval as a writer who rejected the idea of world government in favour of retaining state sovereignty, was in his day one of the most unashamed apologists of the Russian autocracy and opponents of liberalism.

In this connection it is remarkable that Chicherin's opponent in a whole series of literary polemics at the beginning of this century, the philosopher Vladimir Solovyev, should not be mentioned in a book with 'world government' as its title. Solovyev's work, **The National Question in Russia** is a reasoned refutation of nationalistic views such as those held by Chicherin. In his introduction to this book Solovyev writes: 'From the point of view of national egotism, which has been prevalent in politics up till now, every people is a separate, self-sufficient whole, and its own interests represent for it the highest law. Moral duty demands of a people first of all that it eschew this national egotism, overcome its national limitations and relinquish its particularism. A people must recognize itself for what it is in truth, that is, no more than a part of the whole of creation; it must recognize its solidarity with all living parts of the whole — identify itself with the highest interests of all mankind and serve not itself, but these interests as far as its national resources will allow and in a manner consistent with its national qualities.' Unlike Chicherin, however, Solovyev is not at all concerned with the implications of world government for state sovereignty.

One of the features which make Kuzmin's book very unsatisfactory is the fact that it deals only in abstract principles and opinions: it is entirely lacking in discussion of concrete examples, most of the book being taken up with repetition of points he has made before, approached from a slightly different point of view. The lack of concreteness is fully understandable since any examination of how the principle of sovereignty works in practice with regard both to the national republics in the Soviet Union and the socialist states of Eastern Europe would be destructive to the general picture of sweetness and light which appears to prevail. The invasion of Czechoslovakia came just a month before Kuzmin's book was sent to press in September 1968. Even so, it is safe to assume that he would not have drawn upon this excellent example to illustrate his point that 'sovereignty is not absolute'.

It is also a feature of Kuzmin's book that the general argument is imprecise and often contradictory. This is especially noticeable where it concerns the nature of the state. In some places the state is seen as being the instrument of oppression by one class over another; at other times the state is invested with a degree of independence with regard to society as a whole. Kuzmin probably inclines towards the latter formulation in order to avoid having to speak of 'class sovereignty', which would imply supporting some sovereignties and condemning others. For Kuzmin's purposes sovereignty must be seen as a good thing in itself.

The preoccupation with the legalistic conception of sovereignty is to some extent at least a reflection of the perplexity of Soviet theoretitians faced with the phenomenon of successful European economic integration. It is a phenomenon which seems to confound the pessimistic predictions that general wars would result from the attempts of capitalist states to re-divide spheres of economic influence among themselves. In the event, since economies are less and less structured on a

national basis, amalgamation has proved to be a stronger force than national economic rivalry. Lenin's theory of imperialism consequently does not feature prominently in the pages of Kuzmin's book and European unification is not condemned to founder amid the contradictions of imperialism. There is only the rather feeble objection that such unification endangers the 'principle of sovereignty'.

It must not be thought that the ideas expressed in Kuzmin's book are in any way original. For the most part they are wholesale repetitions of formulations found in various documents issued by the Soviet Communist Party. For example, the Soviet textbook **Fundamentals of Marxism-Leninism** contains passages almost identical with those in Kuzmin. The same case is made out for the preservation of state sovereignty, supported by the same arguments and the same quotations from Engels. Kuzmin's only contribution, therefore, has been to supply some documentary illustrations from Western sources. One must necessarily conclude that the Soviet attitude towards the question of world government and sovereignty has remained unchanged over the years.

James D. White
University of Glasgow

The Vivisector

Patrick White

(Jonathan Cape, 1970, 40s)

What is, who was the vivisector? It is no accident that this question was posed at the beginning of our century by an Austrian writer and answered in 1970 by an Australian one. Robert Musil examined the role of the vivisector in family life, friendship and love, as an instrument and as virtuoso (see 'Monsieur le Vivisecteur' in Robert Musil: Tagebücher, Aphorismen, Essays und Reden — P.1 — Rowolt Verlag 1955): he then immortalised him in a novel, 'The Man Without Qualities', which can well be described as 'the adventures and misadventures of a spiritual vivisector at the beginning of the Twentieth Century'. Patrick White has written a novel of comparable stature around the figure of an artist at work in the world since then. Both men's work, in spite of their totally different backgrounds, deal with 'modern man in search of a soul' and do so in such a profound way as to illuminate contemporary history in its now global context.

A glance at White's earlier work is sufficient to establish this point and to indicate the scope of his latest accomplishment. In 'The Aunt's Story' (1948) he paints us a picture of life in pre-1914 Australia and of that 'Jardin Exotique' of Europe in the Thirties — 'Surely this time you must understand we have entered the age of Ersatz'. In 'The Tree of Life' (1956), 'Voss' (1957), 'Riders in the Chariot' (1961) and 'The Solid Mandala' (1966), he uses his matchless knowledge of the colonial and post-colonial Australian scene as a lever to erect a gigantic monument to the predicament of 'mind at the end of his tether' but seeking a new symbol of salvation for man's desperately experienced humanity—Herzog's heartache!

The story of 'The Vivisector' is re-assuringly but misleadingly conventional — how a young Australian of obscure origins became a great painter and what happened to him and those, especially the women, with whom he had relationships during that process. Underneath the surface of this story-line there burns a veritable cauldron of psychological and metaphysical speculation and despair, which in page after page of fine, exact writing throws up and eventually organises that new vision of reality of which Patrick White's previous heroes and heroines have had intimations. 'Voss' was a fore-runner of Hurtle Duffield, and Theodora Goodman in 'The Aunt's Story' was an elderly, benevolent relative of Rhoda, Duffield's crippled half-sister.

For those who, like the French philosopher Marcel, believe that the greatest attribute of the novel is its ability to enable us to obtain our best glimpse of 'what lies behind the reverbatory power of facts', 'The Vivisector' can through fiction help them to make sense of the naked facts of their twentieth century lives.

Empire to Welfare State

English History 1906-1967

T. O. Lloyd

(25s; 465 pages; O.U.P.)

In his preface to this volume of the 'Short Oxford History of the Modern World' Mr T. O. Lloyd warns that 'if the worst comes to the worst the historian can always sit down with his adding machine'. The author, therefore, clearly thought it necessary to amass a great deal of factual, especially statistical, information about English political and economic activity 1906-1967 — the more so as this series is designed to be of practical value to students. Without doubt he has collected his facts with commendable thoroughness.

Mere information, however, is not in itself history and it is after he has discarded his adding machine that the results are less happy. Mr Lloyd is right in believing (pp x, xi) that the nature of historical evidence has changed in modern times but he seems to be unaware of the dangers of this new type of evidence. One such danger is the lack of perspective that too close an involvement with statistics can produce. It is too easy to fall into the trap of believing that if enough figures are presented they will tell the whole story to the exclusion of other evidence. In fact scholarly selection and imaginative presentation are essential if the enormous bulk of modern source material is to be handled successfully. Mr Lloyd fails in both these departments. The information is overwhelming and the presentation dull. Each chapter follows an identical and predictable pattern based on a central political narrative. There is almost no attempt to break away from a strict chronological approach. The result is a lack of clarity — not of the order of events but of their relative importance and of the themes of the period. Even the idea inherent in the title is frequently obscured.

In addition, this failure to handle evidence has resulted in a distinct lack of humanity in his history. He displays little feeling for or understanding of the plight of the people. Society is presented almost exclusively in terms of average incomes, average numbers of unemployed, average price rises. This feature is common throughout the book but most pronounced in the account of the depression years before the Second World War. To state that 'a family on unemployment benefit in the 1930's was about as well off as a family with a father in normal work before the First World War' (p. 184) is to know nothing of the desperation and degradation brought about by long periods of unemployment. Similarly we are informed that though 'there were still slums' there were 'by the end of the 1930's almost as many houses as there were people looking for houses' (p. 183) and that 'people did not starve in the 1930's' (p. 184).

Mr Lloyd takes great pains to inform us (pp. 58-59) that statistical evidence can be unreliable and is capable of varied interpretations and yet he is prepared to base his account of society in Industrial England entirely on such evidence. He makes no attempt to discover the true feelings and living conditions of the British working class. His later suggestion (p. 399) 'that immigration could be a solution to Britain's present economic ills' further evidences how little he understands the pressures underlying British society today.

The later parts of this book are generally more interesting and effective than the early chapters perhaps because evidence of more recent events is more difficult to obtain and the author must rely to a greater extent on his own ingenuity. Thus, though the narrative form is retained, the book gathers pace. The closing chapter, however, does reveal one of the dangers in writing contemporary history for the author discusses at length the long-term significance of the 'success' of the Scottish and Welsh Nationalist movements (p. 414).

The author has succeeded in providing a useful work of reference for students but has failed to increase significantly our understanding of twentieth century England.

Sylvia Purser.

Twentieth Century History and the Cinema

John Thole[1]

Teaching twentieth century world history without using films seems about as dotty as studying painting without looking at pictures. The value of films is obvious: they are vivid; they are memorable; they are superb interest-arousers. Moreover they are valuable first-hand historical evidence, and can give the student that indefinable 'feel' of a situation which is essential for sound judgments.

Why, then, do films so often play so small a part in the teaching of twentieth century history? Basically, for two reasons: first, for lack of material; second, for lack of information about it. It is not that the footage does not exist, but rather that so little of it is available for hire. The archives are stuffed with celluloid, but not so much of it reaches the film libraries. Of the little that does, probably the majority of history teachers are only dimly and partially aware. Attempts have been made to collate the information widely scattered through a mass of distributors' catalogues,[2] but though this is better than nothing, the problem of evaluating the material for teaching purposes so far has not been tackled. Understandably, teachers are reluctant to take expensive risks with films they have not seen and cannot find out much about.

What sort of material is there, then, that can profitably be used in teaching twentieth century world history? Categorising it is difficult, however one tackles it. Perhaps the easiest distinction to draw is between documentary and non-documentary material — though sometimes directors mix the two. Films about the Russian revolution, for example, sometimes borrow Eisenstein clips to compensate for the lack of newsreel material about the storming of the Winter Palace; and fictional war films often make use of genuine documentary material for certain battle sequences. There is an intermediate category, too, of 'staged' documentaries, like Humphrey Jennings' **Fires Were Started** (BFI) — genuine firemen and 'real' events, but re-enacted for the camera. One would like to distinguish between the purposes for which films have been made — between entertainment, education and propaganda: but this is rarely possible, for one man's education is another man's indoctrination, and many 'entertainment' films are highly propagandist. Perhaps it is safest to stick to subject categories and individual cases.

Some subjects are better served than others, and wars do better than peace. There is some excellent film about the first world war, though much of it is non-documentary. Pabst's **Westfront 1918** gives a vivid and probably fairly accurate picture of conditions, but the BFI's copy has a German sound-track and only very few English titles. **All Quiet On the Western Front** (Contemporary and MCA) is an anti-war classic. Apart from some flickery silents in the BFI list, the documentary material is mainly available in heavily edited (and slanted) compilations, such as **'14-'18** (BFI) and the **A Time to Remember** series (Warner-Pathé). Both were made for television: the latter contains other instalments covering the whole period from 1900 to about 1932. The quality is strangely variable, ranging from the jokey to the doom-laden, but always firmly insular in outlook. It pays to select carefully.

Material on the inter-war years is patchy. We still lack a really good film on the Russian revolution, for the excellent television documentaries made for the fiftieth anniversary disappeared into limbo, and Frederic Rossif's account is only available on 35mm. However, there are several films in the ETV catalogue from the Soviet Union that cover it, such as **Lenin — A Biography,** and **The Russian Miracle** (Part I). Both are apt to look plodding and too overtly propagandist to Western eyes. Two American films on these years are **Woodrow Wilson** (CFL) and the non-documentary **The Grapes of Wrath** (Warner-Pathé). On the Spanish Civil War there is Rossif's superb **To Die in Madrid** (Contemporary), a model of documentary compilation, though firmly anti-Franco in its treatment.

Once we reach the Nazi period and the second world war there is plenty to choose from. Paul Rotha's **The Life of Adolph Hitler** (Connoisseur) is much more than a biography, for it uses documentary material to cover the Nazi period and the war in Europe as a whole. It can be strongly recommended. So, with only a few reservations, can the Encyclopaedia Britannica Films series **The Second World War** (Rank), which is in three half-hour parts. The CFL and BFI libraries both contain some interesting wartime propagandist documentaries, such as **Desert Victory** (CLF), **The Story of Stalingrad** (CFL), and the very American **Why We Fight** series (CFL and BFI) made for indoctrinating wartime GIs with. BFI also has some Nazi propaganda films and one or two examples of Nazi newsreels, but most of them have been stripped of their soundtracks (which were important) and those that have survived tend to be in poor condition. Unfortunately, none of the full-length Nazi propaganda films, such as **Triumph of the Will** and **Der Ewige Jude,** are available for hire. The ETV catalogue contains some Russian films about the war, including **Battle on the Volga** and **The Great Patriotic War.** It also has some Czech films: **Evidence** (two parts) looks at the war and its antecedents from the Czech point of view. There is also an interesting East German account of German history from 1900-1945, called **German Story.** All these have English commentaries.

There are several films dealing with the Nazi concentration and extermination camps, of which the most outstanding is Resnais' **Nuit et Brouillard** (Contemporary). **Requiem for 500,000** (also Contemporary) deals with the Warsaw Ghetto. **Strange Victory** (again Contemporary) is about the Nazi treatment of minority groups, and goes on to consider American treatment of similar groups in the post-war years. To redress the balance a little, there is a West German film, **Widerstand** (Curzon), about the German resistance to Hitler.

The history of the last twenty-five years is not nearly so well served. There is a documentary account of **The Nuremburg Trials** (Contemporary): the commentary is banal, but it is all there is. There is also a quite interesting retrospect of **1945** (Concord). **Europe — Two Decades** (CFL) provides a quite useful survey of the first twenty years of European recovery and the cold war, but there appear to be no films available on particular crises such as Korea, Suez or the Cuban Missile Crisis. Curzon distribute some West German films about Berlin and the wall, such as **Die Unmenschliche Mauer** and **Chronik Berlin.** As for the European movement, what has so far appeared is more salesmanship than history. **European Community** (Rank and Sound Services) is due for replacement shortly: **Common Market** (Rank) provides only a fleeting look at the historical evolution. On the anti-war movement, **March to Aldermaston,** an account of the first CND march, is rapidly acquiring some archival interest, as are the films of succeeding marches, all available from Concord. Though CND was indirectly responsible for several striking films, like **The War Game** (BFI), there has only recently become available a film about Hiroshima and Nagasaki raids. There are a few films on other protest movements, among them **The Berkeley Rebels** (Concord), about student protest in America. **The March Revolution** (also Concord) concerns the Czech events of 1968.

Finally, there are a few useful and not-so-useful films on events in other parts of the world. **Cuba Si!** (Connoisseur) is an impression of Castro's Cuba rather than an account of the revolution itself. More substantial is Felix Greene's **China!** (Contemporary). There are several films about the Vietnam war, among them James Cameron's **Western Eye-Witness in the North of Vietnam** (Contemporary and Concord): many more from the Plato catalogue. **African Conflict** (Contemporary) and **Let My People Go** (Contemporary and Concord) are about Apartheid.

It goes without saying that almost all the films mentioned were made by sponsors and directors with well-ground axes, and must be approached with the same circumspection with which one would approach any other piece of historical evidence. Their propagandist treatment, however, enhances rather than detracts from their historical interest. **Lenin— A Biography** (ETV), made in 1970, can tell us

a good deal about contemporary Soviet attitudes to their own history, as well as enabling us to see history from viewpoints other than our own.

It is equally obvious that in a short article it is only possible to mention a fraction of the films available. Even allowing for this, however, it is evident that there are many gaps, and the problem is to fill them.

Perhaps the biggest single step would be to rescue from the ashcan the dozen of historical documentary compilations consigned there by the television companies after perhaps a single showing at half-past ten at night. Transferred to 16mm. film and made available for hire through a film library, most of our problems would be solved. The main objection seems to be cost. To spend the licence-payers' (or for that matter the shareholders') money in providing an educational service of this kind, the television companies argue, would not be justified.

If this is in fact the case, there would seem to be a strong argument for financing the scheme either through the Department of Education and Science or through a grant from a charitable trust. There seems little point in providing schools and colleges with the equipment to show them on if there are not the films to show.

But it might very well be that this rescue operation would pay for itself. A good many commercial film libraries appear to make quite a respectable living from hiring out films, and anyone who thinks there is not a brisk demand for historical documentaries has probably never tried trying to book the films mentioned in this article at short notice. Quite clearly, supply has not yet caught up with demand. Even when it has, it is not unprecedented for supply to stimulate demand.

If it is to do so, however, one further step must be taken, and that is the production of some kind of evaluative catalogue, a sort of **Good Food Guide** to films for history teachers. Come to think of it, a **Bad Food Guide** to films would have its uses too. Any reader who has had to rely in the past on the commercial catalogues will no doubt already have his pencil out.

[Editor's Note: See Mr Thole's forthcoming book, **Films for General Studies.** Estimated publication date is February 1971. It will be published jointly by the Association for Liberal Education and the National Committee for Audio-Visual Aids in Education, and will be obtainable from the latter at 33 Queen Anne Street, London W.1. The **estimated** price is 60p (12s).]

References

1 Lecturer in Twentieth Century History and Politics, Imperial College, London.

2 The most useful is **Visual Aids**, published by the Educational Foundation for Visual Aids, 33 Queen Anne Street, London, W1M 0AL. This is periodically revised, and deals with film-strips and transparencies as well as films.

Film Libraries referred to in this article

BFI — British Film Institute
81 Dean Street, London W.1. 01-437 4355
Hire Dept., 42 Lower Marsh,
London S.E.1. 01-928 4742

CFL — Central Film Library
Government Building, Bromyard Avenue,
London W.3. 01-743 5555

Concord Films Council
Nacton, Ipswich, Suffolk. Ipswich 76012

Connoisseur Films Ltd.
167 Oxford St., London W.1. 01-734 6555

Contemporary Films Ltd.
55 Greek Street, London W.1. 01-437 7071

Curzon Publicity
31 St. James' Place, London S.W.1. 01-493 2823

ETV — Educational & Television Films Ltd.
2 Doughty Street, London W.C.1. 01-405 0395

MCA Films
Kingston Road, Merton Park,
London S.W.19 01-540 7231

Plato Films
2 Doughty Street, London W.C.1. 01-405 0395

Rank Film Library
PO Box 70, Great West Road,
Brentford, Middlesex. 01-568 9222

Sound Services Ltd.
Wilton Crescent, Merton Park,
London S.W.19 01-542 7201

Warner-Pathé Distributors Ltd.
Warner-Pathé House, 135 Wardour St.,
London W.1. 01-437 5600

Students Protest at Amherst College, U.S.A.

Calvin Cannon and Students

The vitality of the World Education Fellowship movement is dependent upon the active involvement of youth in every country in which we have Sections. To attract youth we must be intimately aware of new phenomenon of the emerging 'youth culture'. Youth has its own style of music, books, heroes, dress and outlook upon world events.

In the United States the Vietnam War and the killing of students by security forces have galvanized the energies of our youth to public protest — in the streets, in 'teach ins', in building occupations, in strikes on campuses. They demand a part in policy making, not only in student affairs, but also in curriculum making and in institutional policy of their college or university. A significant number of students are working for 'peace candidates' in preliminary nominating campaigns and in the November 1970 election of United States Congressmen.

Mrs Everett and I were privileged to live for one week, June 1970, in an intimate workshop situation with a number of Amherst College students at Amherst Alumni College, Amherst, Massachusetts. The adults in the group had abundant opportunity to talk with students in panel programs, in classrooms, at meals and in recreational activities. Four students at Alumni College describe their involvement in the Spring 1970 protest strike at the College in which they were supported by the great majority of the faculty. Calvin Cannon, who was in charge of the Alumni College program and professor of Spanish, Amherst College, introduces students statements that were written June 1970, by Samuel Everett, Professor Emeritus, The City College of New York.

A PROFESSOR SPEAKS

Calvin Cannon

The nationwide Spring 1970 student strike, which involved nearly 400 American colleges and universities, had its immediate source in three events of the first week of May: the trial of Black Panther Bobby Seale set for May 1-3 in New Haven, President Nixon's speech announcing the invasion of Cambodia, and the slaying of four white students at Kent State University by the National Guard. A National Student Strike Committee circulated three demands: an immediate end to the war in Indochina, the release of all political prisoners and an end to internal police repression, and an end to campus complicity with the war effort (Reserve Officer Training Corps, defense contracts).

Each institution had its own version of these demands and experienced the strike in its own way. At Amherst College, a small liberal arts college for men located in rural western Massachusetts, the faculty passed three resolutions:

1. The Faculty of the College formally declares its support for the national movement to end the war in Indochina, to end the vilification of youth by public authorities, and to insure justice and full constitutional freedoms for Americans of all races.

2. The Faculty declares that the College is not closed, but that classes are suspended for the remainder of the semester.

3. The Faculty feels a moral obligation to make arrangements for the completion of the semester's work with any student who wishes to do so.

Students and faculty organized a Strike Steering Committee, produced a series of lectures, workshops and seminars on the issues of the strike. Subcommittees dealt with such matters as political action, conscientious objector problems and alumni relations. Hundreds of students canvassed the region seeking support for Congressional measures to end or limit the war. Student-faculty teams went to various alumni organizations around the country to explain what the College was doing. Black students went to Newark, New Jersey, to campaign for Kenneth Gibson, a black candidate for mayor. A group of stu-

dents went to Washington D.C. to talk with Congressmen. Another group published a booklet called **Consider,** which examined various issues of the strike and contained relevant bibliographies. In all this, there was a remarkable unanimity of purpose at the College. The strike at Amherst clearly had the support of the vast majority of both faculty and students. No one struck against the College. Rather the College redirected its educational energies towards a series of urgent and pressing grievances that had culminated in the Cambodian invasion and the Kent State slayings.

But within the general unity, the strike was inevitably experienced differently by each participating individual. Some were at the center of things; some were more towards the periphery. Some were deeply committed; some were doubtful, perplexed, troubled. There were those who concentrated their energies on problems of race, while others gave themselves wholly to working against the Indochina War. In most accounts of the strike, these individual differences were ignored in favor of the typical and the general. As important as these accounts were, we felt that somewhere, somehow, we should allow for expression of the purely personal.

THE STUDENTS SPEAK
Jay Swanson '73, Webster Bull '73, Ted Laurenson '71, and Stephen Gang '72, Amherst College, Massachusetts.

The events of May were for me an awakening. I have been, and it is a sad admission, for some time apolitical and largely unconcerned with the world beyond the sphere of my immediate experience. My inclinations toward this sort of reticence have been nurtured by the nature of Amherst College where I've just completed my freshman year. Its location in the hills of western Massachusetts at some distance from a major urban center, its physical beauty, excellent academic opportunities, cultural offerings and traditional role as a haven apart from the world are all temptations. It is easy to indulge oneself in the pleasures of scholarship, the arts, companionship and forget that another way of life or sphere of activity exists. I presume that I was a victim of these temptations. Preoccupation with life at Amherst narrowed my vision to the point where I read papers and news magazines infrequently from habit, and despite pangs of conscience over such an abnegation of the simple essentials of citizenship, was largely ignorant of current issues. Spring had just arrived in the hills of Holyoke and Pelham. Nature, approaching final papers and college activities commanded my attention.

The Cambodian invasion, the killing of the four students at Kent State University, and the subsequent deaths at Jacksonville and Augusta intruded. The ramifications of the expansion of a war which I had earlier studied and opposed, the President's disregard for Senate consent (indicative of the mentality that evoked the Carswell controversy) and the unspeakable tragedy of student deaths could not be ignored, especially as examples of the increasing polarization of the country, exacerbated by the vitriol of the Administration. In the days immediately following, a national protest mounted from a number of communities, among them, the academic. At Amherst the President of the College expressed his concern in chorus with other university presidents in a telegram to President Nixon; the Amherst faculty publicly expressed its outrage, and in a series of statements and referendums, our college president was joined by the student body in a suspension of normal activities of the college. This was to allow examinations and individual political expression of the crucial issues facing the nation and the world.

As can be imagined, these days were ones of introspection, as well as social and political consciousness. And self-definition, as a form of birth, has its elements of pain and turmoil. That, at least, was my experience. Besides immediate tension between a personal commitment to completion of academic responsibilities and the apparently critical situation demanding decision and response, there were more complicated issues regarding both the college and personal integrity. Fears that the college would become a political organ were allayed by the decision of the faculty, sup-

ported by the students, to grant options enabling each individual to act according to conscience in either completing work as usual or in fulfilling academic requirements by alternate means while engaging in political action. This freedom of choice forced self-definition.

As a member of a college community, the question of the relationship of the college to the world arose. While the importance of the academy as a haven for free thought was obvious, the fact remained that the academy derives its existence from the society in which it exists, and presumably functions to prepare men for participation in that society. Accordingly, recognition of major injustice or crisis in the society at large requires responsible action from the academic community, not only **pro bono publico,** but for its own preservation. More important was the question of division of roles. The status of college student cannot preclude the basic human obligations of concern for the general welfare and intelligent participation in public life.

It was in recognizing these weighty-sounding truths that my own inadequacy was painfully clear, for not only had I isolated myself from active participation, but had not the topical knowledge to act effectively. It was in this uncomfortable realization that a decision was made on my part: to postpone normal academic duties and to educate myself as far as possible on the issues as a prerequisite to responsible opinion and action. Moreover, such a decision was commensurate with a flexible definition of Amherst as 'an educational institution'. Accordingly, I read, attended faculty-led teach-ins and entered political discussions for the first time in some time. At the same time the relevance of my other activities was questioned. While realizing that not every pursuit can be made directly relevant to politics, participation in the performance of the Mozart Requiem for the dead at home and in wars abroad with the Amherst Glee Club and contingents from Smith, Mount Holyoke, Vassar, Sarah Lawrence, and Hamilton Colleges, and from such universities as Yale, Harvard, Radcliffe and the University of Massachusetts was a moving experience and a sincere gesture.

In short, the May 'strike' (the choice of word is dubious) was a rude awakening and a return to political awareness. The fact has also become clear that social consciousness cannot be a 'sometime thing' limited to moratoria but must be an obligation and a democratic privilege pursued concurrently with other interests. Whether the May activities were the beginning of renewed commitment or an exercise in self deception, only time can tell. But I'm hopeful.

by Jay Swanson '73.

The strike came and saved my academic hide. With two weeks of classes remaining, I had three major papers left to be written, and suddenly — total freedom! Although this newfound freedom was a great relief, I suddenly found myself confronted with an equally burdensome responsibility: to deal somehow with chronic political irresponsibility. For as long as I could remember I had always hid behind a label which read: 'Apolitical thinker — do not bother or question.' And if anyone did bother to question me about the war, about the race situation, about pollution, I would retreat behind the standard dove, integrationist, or conservationist position. I knew there must be something behind the anti-war position if such a vast majority of the nations' intellectuals supported it, but I had never bothered to look into it on my own. So suddenly I was forced to be honest with myself. Suddenly I had to become a political being.

Realizing it would be hypocrisy to do committee work or congressional lobbying without sufficient knowledge of the issues and envisioning myself failing miserably at community canvassing if too many housewives threw the domino theory at me, I set out to educate myself. I began to read the newspaper daily, something I had never done before. I read books on United States foreign policy and attended teach-ins on the war, the racial situation, and other issues. Basically, I learned a lot. The strike, ostensibly anti-educational, was the freshest **educational experience** I had ever encountered.

There is no question in my mind why this was so: the strike gave me a sense of direction that elusive plans for a major in English Literature had never afforded. My identity crisis was resolved for the moment: I was suddenly a political being — 'student' had become a nebulous and uncomfortable label to wear.

Facing me was another interesting dilemma during the strike: rehearsal of the lead role in a play at the time of the Cambodian invasion, and we were scheduled to open the following weekend. A number of the cast members received a good deal of pressure to boycott the production and since the director was aware of this pressure, he gave everyone his or her choice in the matter. However, the cast decided unanimously to continue with the play. My own rationale was as follows: I've always been interested in the arts. Good plays, movies, songs, and poems have moved me and literally given me spiritual strength. Our play was a good one. If we worked particularly hard at that moment, we might inspire one or two people to resume the struggle with renewed energy. I think it worked.

I have faith that the arts will always 'work', although political action is more immediate. However, I see that we may be approaching a time of such great crisis that political action may be the only recourse for a short period of time. I am not advocating revolution; I just wonder what I will do with Hamlet rehearsals next fall, if the United States should send troops into Israel.

by Webster Bull '73.

Once one has become deeply involved in an activity, an honest analysis of original motivations becomes difficult. Nevertheless, I shall try. For a constantly liberal student (not to say radical) I turned against the Vietnam war relatively late — in the early spring of 1968. Always intensely interested in politics, I felt compelled to understand the arguments both for and against the war and come to a personal conclusion. The ambiguities of United States motivation, what was happening within Vietnam, and the larger, power-politics conflict among nations distressed my attempts to make clear-cut judgments. However, it was necessary to take a definite position either pro or anti rather than waver in between and say I didn't know. Toward the end of 1965 an unequivocal support of all aspects of the war began to switch to a justification by hoped-for long-range results, which in turn decayed into an argument for the containment and forced turning inward of China — regardless of the destruction of Vietnam itself and the sad conclusion that we supported the wrong side in a genuinely civil war. By the time I arrived at Amherst my dismay at the arguments used to support America's policy had so increased that I could hardly bear to speak to an articulate spokesman against the war for fear of having the arguments I had developed against my own position thrown at me. Finally, after a brief talk with my brother when I was home for spring vacation in 1968, I undramatically switched my position and started to work against the war.

The academic ideal of objective inquiry has proved congenial and has figured significantly in my development as a person. Although I took large portions of time off from school to work politically, especially in the fall of 1969, I maintained an intense academic involvement and opposed the commitment of Amherst as an institution to any political position. I think I understood the logic that led Nixon to order troops into Cambodia. In a way I sympathized with him. Yet the decision seemed based upon a determination to win a war that we ought to, indeed cannot help but lose; the rhetoric and style of presentation exuded an unforgivable self-pity and emphasized a monolithic patriotic over-kill; and apparently the peace movement had fragmented itself so much that the President could treat his opposition with casual contempt. As the similarly disgusted reaction of others manifested itself, I began to feel that I could not go on with a treasured and enjoyable academic-life-as-usual. While I cannot definitely say what I would have done had the faculty not allowed us to devote full time to strike activities without incurring academic penalty, the activities pursued during the last five weeks would have demanded attention even more clearly without affirmative faculty action.

Several of us quickly decided that lobbying, letter writing, and work for or against congressional and senatorial candidates according to their stands on domestic and foreign issues provided effective methods of pressure within the political system. The day after the strike began, Wednesday May 6, I obtained a computer printout of the names of all students at Amherst in zip code order and arranged for a meeting of people interested in working in political races over the summer. We distributed forms for students to fill out according to their summer residence, began some rudimentary research into incumbents' voting records and challengers' positions, and began to arrange coordination with groups at Smith, the University of Massachusetts, Princeton, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Dartmouth, and numerous other organizations and institutions. We decided to link up with the Movement for a New Congress, headquartered in Princeton, and became the western Massachusetts regional headquarters for the organization. We tried to give students as much information as possible on candidates and organizational techniques before they left for the summer, contacted other area schools to help them organize for the summer, and formed a policy board to investigate and endorse promising candidates in our own area. During the summer we shall try to coordinate student political efforts for those candidates, direct and inform Amherst students and interested alumni and parents in other areas, and prepare the mechanisms for use of students in local campaigns when they return in the fall. Faculty, parent, and alumni contributions will supply office and some living expenses for me and another fulltime researcher-coordinator for the summer; but we must predominantly support ourselves.

Shortly after the strike began I followed through on a nascent previous intention and withdrew from school for the next semester to work in politics. Plans to go to Europe during the summer withered to a hope of going after the November election. A sacrifice? Well, I enjoy the work and would feel uncomfortable doing something else. In the value system under which I work it has become difficult to remain a gentle rebel; yet I despise violence and will continue to try to avoid it. Occasionally when the outlook appears bleak, I enjoy association with some relatively apolitical friends and wonder at a world which seems to require total political involvement for its very survival.

by Ted Laurenson '71.

When I returned to Amherst College, Sunday May 3, 1970, after a weekend at home in New Jersey, I encountered plans for a strike in conjunction with students nationwide and found that, for me, there were many other issues bound up in such a project besides Nixon's Cambodian incursion. I had not been deeply involved in intra-campus political action and was profoundly skeptical about such attacks by students upon the university, the institution most convenient and most vulnerable to them, in pursuit of drastic change in national policies. There was little in early strike plans to reassure me — absence from classes, visiting Black Panther lecturers, and closing down the school for a march on Washington to once again confront the warmakers, again most likely in the form of overworked and confused District of Columbia Policemen and the National Guard. And so ran the talk with classmates Monday, concerning the necessity and legitimacy of an institutional stand on Nixon's latest and most abhorrent folly and the conceivable impact of such a symbolic action, perhaps by colleges nationwide.

The night on Monday, May 4, there was a mass meeting organized by the Ad Hoc Amherst Strike Committee. Still somewhat dubious and protective towards 'the academy' of Amherst College, I went and listened. From then on I count myself a full participant in the 'Strike' activities, for when I saw the depth of faculty concurrence with student outrage at policies of the United States Government, I was made aware that students and faculty could work together to bring to the public attention the need for immediate change and agree on adequate substitutes for the remaining regular academic program without eliminating those necessary activities.

I served on the Student Assembly (one representative for every 40-man living unit) which defined for the college community the 'cessation of normal activities' and created and financed as best it could many task forces of students and faculty. I helped publish a daily newsletter for Amherst College and its four valley neighbor colleges — publicizing a series of faculty lectures, meetings of committees on congressional campaigns, information and research, alumni relations, lobbying in Washington, summer action and draft counseling.

With a group of Economics faculty and students from Amherst, Smith and Mt. Holyoke, I then went to Washington May 11 to visit Congressmen and administrators. In what was the most hectic five days I can remember, we saw (in person or through staff) twelve Senators, five Representatives, labor leaders and prominent Washingtonians, and a member of the staff of Vice President Agnew. I now appreciate those days as an intensely educational experience — something uniquely and vitally important — for any serious student or active citizen.

While in Washington, we encountered many other collegiate groups frantically rushing from office to office on Capitol Hill as well as several organizing to serve as a Student Lobby and campaigning headquarters, often in total ignorance of each other. Concerned about duplication, we were able through the good offices of several New York Congressmen — James Scheuer, Ed Koch, and Jonathan Bingham — to bring the various student leaders from Dartmouth, Princeton and Yale law schools and Sam Brown's Project Pursestrings together for an afternoon, gaining closer communication and cooperation on fund-raising, office and telephone facilities, without forcing any group to surrender its sovereignty.

After returning to Amherst for final exams, I am working for the re-election of Congressman James Scheuer (a reform Democrat) in the June 23 Democratic Primary in the Bronx — canvassing, participating in walking tours and meetings, manning sound trucks, and such. With some friends I have also spent time in Newark, New Jersey, campaigning for the Mayoral election of Kenneth Gibson. I intend to continue volunteer public work through the summer. It is a new and challenging type of activity, a fascinating education in many ways.

For me, this is the success of the week in May at Amherst College and across the nation — an awareness and sense of commitment to real, concrete ends in electoral politics and the political processes, to national change — arising from an academic change from one educational milieu to another no less valid and instructional. If such new commitments become widespread and permanent, we shall all acquire the means to change that we so desperately desire.

by Stephen Gang '72.

IMPORTANT !

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The price has remained unchanged for the past 10 years, but the cost of printing, stationery and postage has risen so steeply that it is no longer possible to absorb them.

Regretfully, the price will be increased to 4s (20 np) as from January 1st, 1971, which only just covers the actual production and administrative costs — we do not expect to make any profit.

The annual subscription will also rise to £2 and this will take effect from the date the present subscription expires during 1971.

It is hoped that all readers will continue to support the Journal, for even at its increased price, the reading material provided is of extremely high quality and allows the expression of new and original thought from contributors of all ages, and views. It is unique.

W. B. Curry (1900-1962): A Re-assessment[1]

Maurice Punch

Lecturer in Sociology, University of Essex

Although 'Bill' Curry did not assume the headship of Dartington Hall School until five years after its foundation (by Dorothy and Leonard Elmhirst in 1926), the school became closely identified with him and he guided it through a quarter of a century, from 1931 to 1957.[2] Curry was a Northumbrian, born at Jarrow-on-Tyne at the turn of the century, the son of a grocer and the eldest of four children. At grammar school in Newcastle he performed well and completed his years there as Head Boy and Senior Scholar of Trinity College. At Cambridge he read Mathematics for Part One and Natural Sciences for Part Two but disappointed, in view of his intellectual repute, by gaining a Third in both. He claimed not to have been one of those who turned to progressive education in bitter revolt — being quite content with his success, and even apparently his powers to punish, at an orthodox school — yet he was an extremely complex and sensitive person who could recall

> 'to this very day I remember very vividly the sickening feelings of revulsion with which, at the age of nine, I watched a boy being flogged by the headmaster in front of the whole class'.[3]

Furthermore from the age of sixteen he became obsessed with the problem of peace and this, together with education, provided his two life interests. In 1919 he read Bertrand Russell's 'Principles of Social Reconstruction' which was based on lectures delivered during the First World War and which drew on a Freudian interpretation of the psychology of insanity to explain the popular hysteria that had greeted hostilities. In addition, Russell considered the positive growth of freedom in infancy as of pivotal importance for future peace and discerned in repressive systems of education a pre-disposition towards brutality and aggression. Writing on the theme 'Books Which Made Me a Rationalist' for the 'Literary Guide' in 1940, Curry cited G. B. Shaw, H. G. Wells, but above all Bertrand Russell, as influences; and, in fact, Curry found clarification and stimulus for his own ideas through his friendship with Russell.

After Cambridge Curry taught at Greshams for one term before moving to Bedales where, with J. H. Bradley as head, he became Senior Science Master during his four year stay. In 1926 he went to Oak Lane Country Day School in Philadelphia and, within a year, was its headmaster at the age of twenty seven. From a short-list of three he was appointed to the headship of Dartington in June 1930 and arrived to take up his office on July 1st, 1931. Dartington must have appeared a godsend — a clear slate with an almost new school on the verge of major expansion, generous and admiring patrons, and an opportunity to experiment radically in education with few inhibitions or limitations. Leonard Elmhirst recalled,

> 'Oh, at that time in history, whether in America or England, I don't think there was in the school world another mind as creative or as positive or as courageous as Curry's'.[4]

In his books on education Curry elucidated his ideas with clarity, frankness, and great persuasion.[5] But, in keeping with many interwar radicals, he fervently hoped that progressive education could produce rational, democratic citizens to populate a sane society and that his type of school would be the prototype of a new, universal education which would save civilization from itself. Perhaps one idea above all others informed his outlook; namely, that the citizens of tomorrow must be prepared by experiencing the activities of the real world — or, as Dewey phrased it, 'the only way to prepare for life is to engage in social life'. For the responsibility that this entailed it was essential that the child be trusted and Curry professed, and selected teachers who exemplified, an almost religious respect for the child's freedom and individuality. The same spirit suffused Russell's passage, which Curry never tired of quoting,

> 'Where authority is unavoidable, what is needed is reverence. A man who is to educate really well and is to make the young grow and develop into their full stature, must be filled through and through with reverence . . . the man who has reverence will not think it his duty to 'mould' the young . . . [he] can wield the authority of an educator without infringing the principles of liberty'.[6]

But children could not be granted full freedom as the school had certain responsibilities to its own community, to parents, to outside society, and, not least, to the children themselves. To reconcile the authority necessary to implement these interests with the individual's freedom, the utilization of pupil self-government was of paramount importance. By reason, by discussion, by a genuine delegation of responsibility, the children were to be given experience of debate and citizenship, the individual would be reconciled with the community, but, most importantly, involvement in rule-making meant that everyone would be able to see the reason behind a regulation even where the machinery had in practice no power to alter it (say on health or safety). Dartington was to be a battleground for the victory of persuasion over force and Curry's optimism about the outcome was based on a conviction that the child was as rational as an adult,

> 'Experience has convinced me that, provided the atmosphere is favourable to rational discussion, and provided that suitable adults are available to assist in clarification, a body composed mainly of children can be expected to reach sensible and responsible decisions on all or most of the questions which come before it'.[7]

In addition, the child was to learn because he wanted to and not from adult imposition. Marks, rewards, competition, etc., were antithetical to the spirit of learning for its own sake, and this implied that if the child chose to avoid work, perhaps to let off the steam accumulated from a conventional education or an unenlightened home, this was permissible as he would return to study refreshed and of his own accord. Yet, above all else, Curry desperately desired his school to blossom intellectually — but not, it was hoped, at the cost of neglecting the balanced development of the individual. The arts, of course, would contribute to this balance while coeducation provided a wholesome environment for emotional relationships between the sexes. Curry considered that Dartington in the thirties was one of the few schools that faced the implications of genuine coeducation — boys and girls shared toilets and bathrooms, there was no segregation of rooms by sex, children bathed together in the nude, but, most vitally, free emotional relationships (within the legally imposed limits of outside society) were permitted.

The notion of discrete individuals pursuing rationally their own ends within the framework of a community was the antithesis of authoritarian education. The latter was the preserve of partisanship, group-spirit, rivalry, competition, and uncritical loyalty which Curry castigated as the seeds of nationalism, the herd mentality, fascism, and totalitarianism. In contrast, Dartington was to be suffused with liberal principles — no punishment, no uniform, no prefects, no religion, few rules and those agreed by discussion, no bounds, freedom to choose and attend classes, no sexual segregation, and a large measure of self-government. But, as Curry fully appreciated, this was not the negation of adult responsibility and the price of liberty was eternal vigilance.

Curry himself was the dominant figure in the school. An imaginary visitor asks him (in one of his books),

> 'How cold and arid! What have you got in your veins — ice or blood?'

and the laconic answer is 'I have been asked that before'.[8] A young girl wrote, perceptively but somewhat unkindly, that Curry was a little man with a large head who always looked at her as if he saw in her far more complexes than she actually had. And here is the central paradox of Curry's personality — that to some he was a cold, remote, over-intellectual person

who made them feel inferior and uncomfortable, but to others he was warm, humorous, and undeniably charismatic. Certainly he possessed a first-class mind, was a brilliant speaker, and remained in print and in debate one of progressive education's most lucid and persuasive proselytizers. Yet the cool exterior cloaked an extremely passionate, emotional, powerful personality. The burden he carried was the conviction that he was right and that many people were palpably misguided. And yet, fastidiously, he would endeavour not to betray his bias, especially with children, and even prided himself on being able to discuss controversial issues with the children without them discovering his true opinions. Furthermore, the affectation of a certain detachment, almost an impassiveness, which could be misconstrued as indifference, enabled him to remove discipline and emotional problems from the realm of shame, guilt, and personal condemnation, while the mystique which surrounded him, and which perhaps he unconsciously cultivated, proved invaluable to someone who was the final arbiter in a permissive community.

At the same time, he could be uncompromising, pugnacious, and self-opinionated. The last two qualities appeared particularly in the face of criticism which he considered uninformed; one former pupil of his remarked,

> 'He could be terribly scathing about other schools. He was a bumptious little man — or he would have been considered bumptious by people who disagreed with him, insufferably bumptious — I should think he was loathed by the Headmaster's Conference!'[9]

To those who disagreed with him he could, indeed, be scathing and intemperate and his early years in the school were punctuated by many peppery scenes. He allowed his staff almost unlimited discretion in their professional capacity but would confront anyone whom he considered to be endangering the school's faith of not indoctrinating children — a faith he was prepared to defend passionately. And if he gave great freedom to his staff he demanded it for himself — the school was his and no-one else's and even freedom from the interference of his benevolent guarantors was expressly written into his contract. He wished so much that his Dartington would flourish into a model of the new order, the educational jewel in the crown of radical liberalism.

Indeed, there lurked almost something of the showman inside Curry; there was perhaps an underlying flamboyant, self-indulgent streak barely concealed by his normally dead-pan expression. He had a passion for large cars, for instance, and at one time could boast of two period Rolls-Royces, a vintage Bentley, and the Hispana Suiza used in the film 'The Third Man'. This was matched by the mutual flattery, the affluence, and the exotic atmosphere of the heady pioneering years of the thirties at Dartington. He shared a determination with the Elmhirsts that Dartington was going to be something of a showpiece — none of the supposedly anarchic dereliction of Summerhill, or the cold baths and soil-closets of the more ascetic progressive tradition, but a school endowed on the scale of the great Public Schools. The standards against which nearly all progressive schools competed were those of the Public School and Dartington was no exception; there was a wish to prove that a radical education was as good as, if not better than, a traditional education, e.g.

> 'Curry wanted so badly to prove to the world that what people considered a crank school could win scholarships to Cambridge, at Trinity. If he could get a scholarship to Cambridge it justified his whole thing . . . his whole emphasis all the time was on academic achievement'.[10]

Although he determined not to display favouritism to any of the children, he could not resist the challenge of bright children from artistic, non-conforming backgrounds. It irked him not to have complete financial freedom to choose parents irrespective of their ability to pay the fees. As it was, he concentrated from the beginning on purifying the school — he soon ceased to direct the educational services of the rest of the Dartington

estate as originally intended, he endeavoured to attract parents who were in sympathy with his ideals, and he resented the high proportion of 'problem' children which Dartington, in keeping with most progressive schools, attracted (not to mention problem parents!). In fairness, it must be said that he could be extremely successful with problem children, not in the Freudian, semi-analytical, personal style of A. S. Neill or Homer Lane, but in his cool, rational, persuasive technique of personal chats. However, he could over-emphasize the curative powers of freedom and was somewhat disparaging about analysts. In certain cases, he held on to problem children for too long before recognising that they needed treatment yet, with others, his fine balance of judicious non-interference proved therapeutically salutary.

In the first eight years Curry had planned and supervised the expansion and development of Dartington to a stage where it had expanded four-fold (from 51 to 194 pupils), enjoyed a waiting list of applicants, was functioning smoothly, and could boast an excellent staff and an international reputation. But if reason pervaded Dartington it fell on stony ground in contemporary Europe and the outbreak of war spelt the end of an era for the school and Curry. In one term, for instance, 64 children left and the school only survived by the selfless devotion of Curry and his staff. But the war probably affected Curry more than it did most people; it not only spelt the end to his hopes for world peace and the universal sway of reason, and threatened to devour his young disciples, but it also personally knocked his philosophic base to smithereens, with two of his idols recanting — when Wells despaired of the world in his later writings, and with Russell's 'volteface' on pacifism, two of his golden figures appeared suddenly with feet of clay. With overwork, fatigue, disillusionment, and, later, diabetes, he aged considerably during the war years. The financial and structural flexibility of the pre-war years foundered on the need for stringent economy, and a certain rigidity crept into the school. Later he wrote,

> 'The war years are best forgotten. Our growth and development had not been merely arrested but reversed'.[11]

Few could blame him for feeling discouraged in a post-war world that must have seemed the negation of all he stood for; his pre-war optimism and the school's high morale foundered in a world of the Atomic Bomb, the Berlin Air-lift, the Korean and Indo-Chinese Wars, and the Arms Race. Increasingly he found it difficult to muster sympathy for those who disagreed with him and in the school a certain antagonism built up against him among the pupils for practically the only time since his very first term. At the same time, he seemed to rely increasingly on the hope and the company of children and grew less and less communicative with adults. This applied even to the Trustees. First of all he resented the increasing burden of financial chores occasioned by post-war austerities and inflation and, secondly, he strongly opposed their request for an Inspection — the idea of state interference was anathema to his liberalism. Characteristically, when finally forced to acquiesce (largely for the sake of the staff who would benefit occupationally from recognition), Curry adamantly refused to countenance any window-dressing for the Inspectors, who found his honesty and impersonal accuracy with regard to presenting his school, 'warts and all', almost a religious attitude. The headmaster, incidentally, they found to be still at the height of his powers. Their report, however, criticized some of the teaching and in probing this jealously guarded area the Trustees countered the headmaster's belief in absolute autonomy.

From then on, relations between Curry and the Trustees slowly but steadily deteriorated. Curry's great virtues now became his vices — his fine judgement on non-intervention with children began to verge on indecision, his indifference to outside opinion became neglect of parents and dismissal of outsiders as 'amateurs', and his jealously guarded independence left him isolated and withdrawn. The burdens of headship in a progressive school can be far more onerous than in traditional schools and, in a way, Curry needlessly increased his own load by a consistent inability to delegate responsibility — this so personalized his control as to make 'succession' an initially herculean task. In addition, uncon-

sciously he could not brook the thought of a rival, either to his undisputed intellectual powers or his relationships with the children, and, consequently, no-one of comparable stature emerged among the staff to fill the vacuum on his decline. Tired, ill, and disillusioned, he practically despaired and there was little alternative for him but to resign — he appeared to have lost faith in himself and the world.

The sadness of Curry's illness and decline should not obscure his achievements. He helped build Dartington into an internationally known and respected school, noted for its uncompromising stand on coeducation and for its warm staff-pupil relationships. He courageously advocated the progressive creed to great effect in lectures and in his books. But above all, he was, in his prime, a great headmaster. He was expressly generous in his time for children, he conducted a prodigious, painstaking correspondence with parents about their children, he attracted a gifted and well qualified staff (notably in the thirties), and he was responsible for suffusing the school with tolerance, reason, and respect for the individual. In his example, and through his staff, he practised a deep, almost religious reverence for the pupils' own unique individuality in the belief that the child would ultimately accept rational self-regulation and his place in maintaining the community. At the beginning he had the vision, drive, and ambition necessary to launch the school on a programme of major expansion and then guide it through conflicts of opinion, through drastic economies, and through the disheartening experiences of the war.

In the effort, he became perhaps too closely identified with the school — too jealous of his relationships with the children to allow others to rival him and too autocratic to relinquish authority and control when he must have known his powers were fading. But the loyalty he inspired in some of the staff and pupils is still a potent legacy some thirteen years after he left. His charisma was based on respect and admiration for his intellect and intellectual integrity, rather than the electric response which other progressive educators seem able to elicit from children, and not everyone appreciated this. Paradoxically, his ultra-rational, aloof pose that was assumed in order **not** to influence people was his attraction for many. Despite his attempts at impartiality it is inconceivable to think of Dartington without Curry so thoroughly did he impregnate it with his values and personality. In his heyday, as an organiser and proselytizer, he was an impressive figure. Had there been a progressive school 'system', and had not the war and illness thwarted his aspirations, he might well have become the progressive Arnold.

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Nepal 1970 Visit

Merle Iredale

The plane touched down at Pokhara, Nepal, and the 15 of us stepped out on to the dusty airstrip. We hardly noticed the gravelly runway, we were too busy looking at the snow above us on Machhapuchhari shining in the sunlight. That is what we had come for, to walk and climb in the beautiful mountains, the world's most famous range, the Himalayas, there above the airstrip, not many airports of the world have as fine a view.

We were 15 members of the Hobart Walking Club, Tasmania, Australia. Our common interest was walking, our professions were varied, but our keenness for the outdoors was the binding love.

Shouldering our packs, collecting Sherpas and Porters, we set off to make our way to the big Kali Gandaki River and follow it north towards Tibet, passing right through the main Himalayan range between Annapurna and Dhaulagiri, both over 26 thousand feet, on our way.

What, in this climbing holiday, would there be to interest W.E.F. members? I asked myself and sought an answer. W.E.F. members are interested in (1) the changing world that is reshaping our civilization; (2) educating the child's whole personality to live in this world a full and better life and make his contribution towards humanity.

To number 1, certainly their world is changing rapidly for these Nepalese people, and their schools have to grapple with number 2.

Here we go along the track where only foot traffic can pass, up over ridges, down into valleys each day getting nearer the River. We pass small villages on the way with a few houses, a shop, a school of about 20 or 30 children; it is hard to guess their ages — probably between six and eleven — they stand round us curiously, staring and chattering. I gather they learn the three Rs and English, mostly the teachers are Gurkhas who come back to their native land after a term of soldiering in India or elsewhere, bring with him his savings, his pension and his progressive ideas, for he has been out into the world, is familiar with its new inventions, can read and write, and speak English.

Distances on this Earth have shrunk, we are all neighbours; here was I, an Australian from Tasmania (the deep south next to the South Pole). Two days by plane and I am walking among the Nepalese who have never used a wheel for transport, a telephone for communication or a supermarket for supplies. These neighbours belong to my world, they need my understanding. The whirlwind of the new era is blowing thru' Nepal and the education of its people is of paramount importance.

These villages have their age old cultures — dancing, music, spinning, weaving, farming, animal husbandry, building terraces on the steep slopes for grain growing, building beautiful stone houses, wood carving of doors and balconies etc. The people of this area until now have led a full and cheerful life, they are well fed and happy, but the recent political events in India and especially in Tibet are changing the pattern of life for them, the change is striding into their valley apace. They traded with Tibet, exchanging their grains for Tibetan salt; this trade has almost stopped and the people are faced with difficulties they cannot solve.

The trade routes in this steep mountainous area are all foot paths for animal or human feet, by human endeavour the paths and shaky bridges have been built, but technical education would help to build safer and better bridges; already there are a few from outside aid. Health education would help the lot of these people, the nearest doctor and hospital was at Pokhara, several days walk away.

Somehow the sophistication of W.E.F. seemed a far cry from the children in rags and dirt who chattered so merrily beside our tents, but they too want education for their whole personality, up till now they have had just this. But with this rapidly changing environment is is their education versatile enough to swing with the 70's? Will they bypass the coach and buggy days and rocket right into the air plane, space travel era??

As a W.E.F. member I came away with a big question mark. As a H.W.C. member I came away from the most beautiful scenery and mountains — it was sad to leave them and I HOPE THEY NEVER CHANGE.

The Social Dynamics of Secondary Education

R. L. Richer, M.Ed., D.S.P.E.

The open systems theory of organisation developed by Rice and his associates at the Tavistock Institute,[1] offers a useful model for discussing the socialisation processes of advanced societies. Bion's theory of experiential (so called 'leaderless' or 'unstructured') groups, when applied to the study of meetings between such groups, provides Rice with a conceptual framework for describing both such meetings (intergroup events) and the input, output, and conversion processes of industrial enterprises.

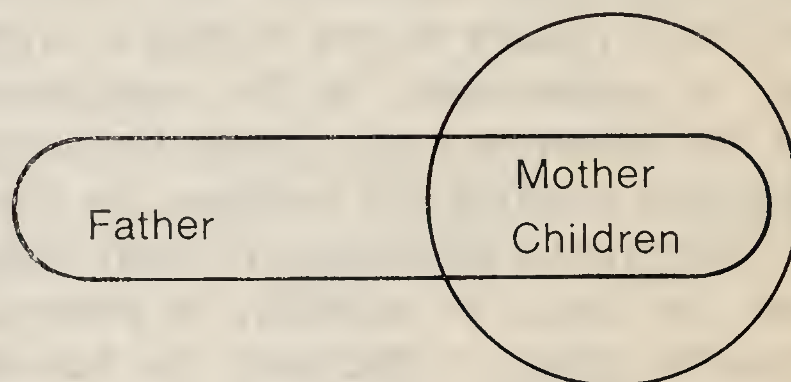
All viable human groups have boundaries; group membership implies inclusion and exclusion and the existence of normative systems. As the ego functions at the individual's boundary, mediating the relationship between the inner world of fantasy and the external world of reality, so group leadership and enterprise management operate at the boundaries of groups and enterprises respectively.

Rice tends to reserve the terms leadership and management to describe the role of controlling the group's outer boundary, though he uses the concept of internal boundaries and internal leadership systems to describe large industrial enterprises. Such boundary leadership is concerned with advancing the group's task, taking initiatives, giving directions, regulating, monitoring and giving external support to the whole enterprise.

Additionally Rice recognises the informal sentient systems within groups and the existence of 'assumption group' leadership. These internal leadership roles, which may or may not conflict with the task oriented managerial role, are seen to be concerned with the human needs of the group. Enterprises maximise their effectiveness when the internal leadership supports the boundary leader's definition of the group task. Groups are weakened when individuals claiming to represent the group meet other groups and engage in cross boundary transactions, conversely effective leadership defines and regulates cross boundary transactions.

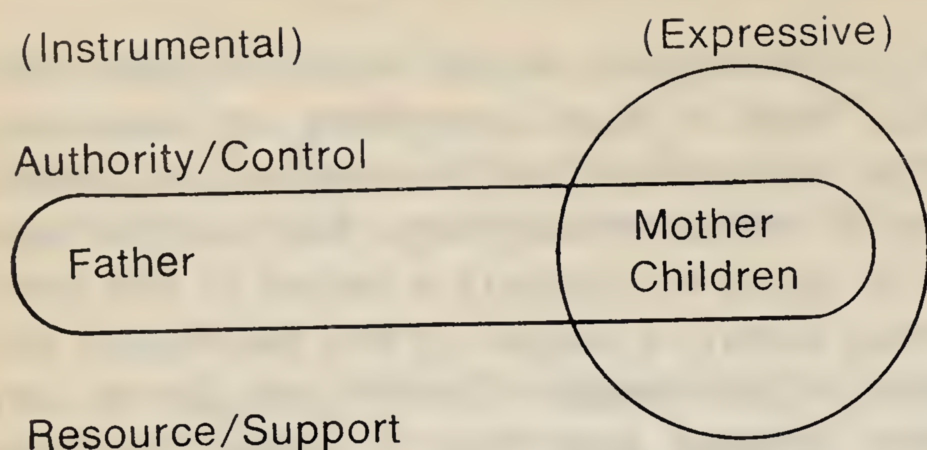
This open system model, which is more complex than I have described, is inherently flexible and could well be adapted for general use in social anthropology. My purpose here is to use it to illustrate a model of the patrilineal family; a model of the matrilineal kinship of the Western Pueblo and similar kinship systems and then to relate the latter to a descriptive model of 'the family of socialisation'.[2]

The nuclear, patrilineal family is represented in Fig. 1.



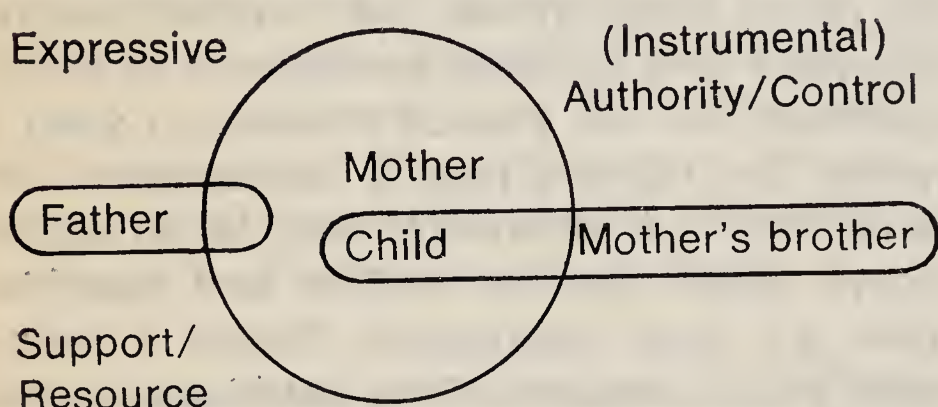
The system's boundary is the home. Within it there are subsystems which relate father and mother, father and children and mother and children. Father's role as task leader (authority/control), is indicated by his being shown as undertaking the major cross boundary function. Each member may cross the physical boundary of the home , but may not cross the psychosocial boundaries of the task and sentient activity systems, not at least without disrupting the family. In the extreme patrilineal model father alone controls and gives direction to the family as an enterprise. He provides for the physical needs of the whole group by his earnings and regulates its major financial transactions. The young are dependent on him and derive their place in society from him. He negotiates his daughters' marriages and places his sons in their occupations. His is the role of ultimate authority over the whole family group; he regulates social behaviour and requires acceptance of family traditions. To use Parson's terms, in such a system the father's role is instrumental, the son's role is instrumental only in an anticipatory sense, and the mother and daughter roles are both expressive. Figure 2 represents these elements of the patrilineal model.

Fig. 2.



Matrilineal systems, in which the young males of primitive tribes are initiated into adult roles by their maternal uncles are different in important respects. In such kinship systems (Hopi, Trobriand Islanders) the authority/control role passes to the mother's brother. Father is subservient to the matrilineage, whilst the maternal uncle adopts the authority control role towards his nephew. As Homan notes, the crucial distinction of such systems is that the 'locus of authority is external to the marital group.'[3] Effectually the boundary role of the father is confined to that of provider and sustainer, whilst the complementary authority control role of the patrilineal system is undertaken by the mother's brother. Initiation and occupational placement are determined by the maternal uncle, and his role relations with his nephew, are characterised by such social distancing techniques as the uncle's insistence on, and the youth's acceptance of, standards of manners, bearing and respect. Where the mother's brother takes such a role, the father-son relationship is freed of conflicts characteristic of patrilineal systems, whilst the development of expressive, affectionate, and spontaneous intra-family relationships is facilitated. The boundaries of the mother's brother system are illustrated in Figure 3.

Fig. 3.



This model, with little alteration, forms the basis of the family of socialisation in advanced society. In brief, the role of mother's brother has been taken over by the schooling system. As a result home and family life are freed from conflicts which are characteristically patrilineal so that father and mother share the same, basically supporting role. The authority/control system with all that it entails passes to the school. (Fig. 4.)

This is a point which teachers may find hard to accept, though under the guise of blaming parents ('there's no discipline in the home') it is familiar enough. However, one of the best attested facts of recent educational studies is that pupils in schools and adolescents in the post school period have a high regard for their parents and see them as warm, sympathetic, permissive, tolerant and understanding. Rather it is the school which is regarded as the instrumental/authority control parent.[4]

We have, I am suggesting, instituted in the schools a system of socialisation which cannot be separated from the family: by focusing on the one hand on kinship and relationship patterns in the modern family as one area and the child's experience of schooling as a separate area of study social psychiatry has failed to present a comprehensive view of English (and indeed modern Western) socialisation: namely that it is a binary system composed of natural parents and state appointed parents. This is, I wish to emphasise, a point which is hard to take: not least because it demands that teachers call to mind and acknowledge their complex relationships with the State step-parent system.

I shall return to this point later but wish first to consider further the punitive aspects of the secondary system of education identified by young people in a recent study of adolescent attitudes to self and school.[5] Pupils in State schools saw teachers as punitive and coercive in their classroom role, and gave many instances in support of their assertions. In addition to these direct levels of punishment, it is to be noted that schooling is also seen to be hostile to the individual's self con-

cept in a variety of ways.

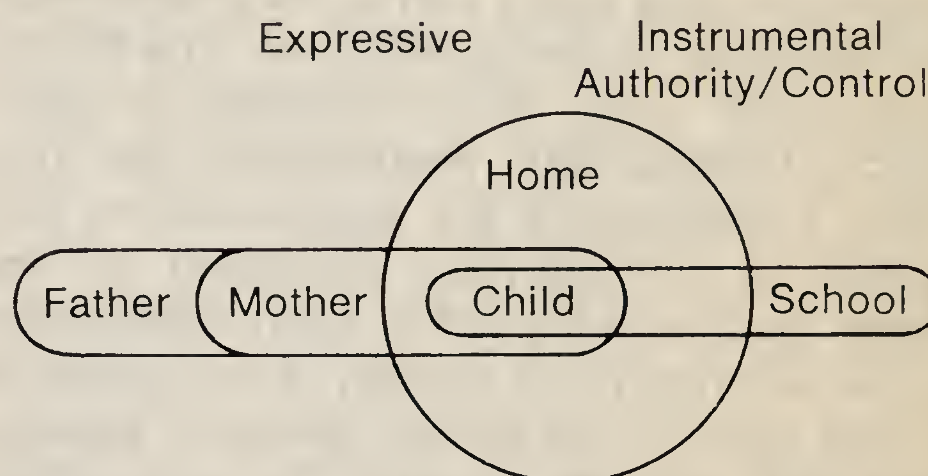
It would seem that the examination system is used as a means of control in schools. Through it many children are occupied, their goals are clarified and if they respond to the examination model they will eventually gain the reward of initiation: acceptance by the staff either in the 6th form of a grammar school or in the selective fifth of a modern school.

Young people see, and see realistically, that streaming, examinations, and patterns are inextricably linked, and note that this is 'pumped into them' throughout their school career. Moreover, the kernal of this issue lies not with the fact of the child's self assessment of himself or herself as a relative failure, or with his subsequent discovery that the examination incentives were goads, but with the fact of having a growing sense of failure and yet being compelled to stay on in a failure situation. Surely no sane parent would compel a child who felt a failure, to remain in close daily contact with the adults who had so classified him, or with the peers whose very presence were constant reminders of the fact of his failure in their terms.

The mother's brother role now transferred to the schools is characterised by authority/control systems from the nursery school upwards. Even play groups in this country advertise the value of the child's learning to accept authority in the play group as a means of facilitating a transfer to the State system. Control is a teacher's primary task; though not all school systems are as physically coercive as the British system. Different schooling techniques, which may vary from the openly harsh to the subtly manipulative, underlie the complexities of the teaching situation. Whilst education for its own sake is the ostensible purpose of schooling, educational sociologists from Waller onwards have shown that, on analysis, the competitive selective processes of schooling conflict with this purpose at every level. The hierarchical control systems within the school's arm of the family of socialisation may vary from milieu to milieu but each determines the life style of its various members, allocating them to social status and occupational placement. Indeed amongst such life styles, it generates both probation officer and delinquent, social worker and social problem, psychiatrist and patient.

One other point may be made. The 'family of socialisation' has by its existence enabled the mother to make her own role more like that of the father than is possible in primitive matrilineal systems.

Fig. 4.



As both father, mother and children cross the boundary of the home system and negotiate cross boundary transactions the authority control function of the home is further weakened. Except sexually, the roles of the parents in the nuclear family are substantially alike to the child and materially different from the authority/control 'parent' of the school. Different roles are expected from the child in each situation and role conflict is exacerbated. The parallels with Bateson's communication theory of schizophrenia are particularly interesting: the child's perception of parent role differences is minimised in this contemporary variant of the matrilineal system, whilst schooling takes place within a classic double bind network: compulsory attendance, a highly visible system of rewards and punishment and the development of a false-self system adequate to bridge the gap between home and school. Such is our contemporary extended family.

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World Education Fellowship

Indian Section

Recently the Indian Section of the W.E.F. has come to realise that for promoting progressive and better education, the community and the people should be made aware of its educational objectives and problems. For this reason the Indian Section of W.E.F. now tries to involve and make different sections of the community take active part in the programmes and activities of the organisation. The Rotary Club, Lions Club, Junior Chamber of Commerce, Headmasters' Associations and Teachers' Organisations are approached to participate in the activities organised by the Indian Section of the W.E.F. Such involvement by the different cross section of the people in society helps to get various divergent approaches and attitudes towards the educational problem under discussion. This participation by lay persons also helps to get their cooperation for any progressive or new project once they have understood or are introduced to it in this manner.

The Indian Section of W.E.F. has been organizing activities under three main headings:

I

(a) To help the community to know and be aware of educational problems.

(b) To help the parents understand their children.

(c) To involve the community and the parents with regard to promotion of International and Inter-regional understanding projects carried out by various schools associated with the Indian Section of W.E.F. Seminars and symposiums are held to make the general community know the 'Nation Commission Report' and other government policies. General problems of youth, language, etc. are also discussed in Seminars so that enlightened public can know what is happening in the educational world.

For helping the parents understand their children the Indian Section of the W.E.F. organises seminars, symposiums and question answer meetings on — such as:—

(a) Psychological and Emotional problems facing the child at different development stages.

(b) Health problems and Precautions to be taken by parents for their children.

Education—Diet—Food—Health its effects.

(c) Social and behaviour differences. Problems such as these are presented by experts, in their field.

To make the parents and the community actively participate in the International and Inter-regional Understanding, the Indian Section of the W.E.F. organises the following:

1. The organisation requests the Associated Schools to involve the parents and the other international organisations to participate in their projects and activities such as:

(1) Exhibition — others can contribute articles and things of different countries.

(2) Dresses — Food dishes of various nations etc.

(3) Observing U.N. Day, Human Rights and International Education year etc.

(4) Inviting resource personnel — to help build up the project or an activity.

(5) Organising seminars on Education for Inter-regional and International Understanding: for Schools and Training Colleges.

(6) Over the last three years camp-cum-seminars are organised for school children (14+ to 18) to promote inter-regional understanding between students of different States in India.

These exchanges take place through schools

and the families of the school. The child is the guest of the family and attends school of the host child. The student stays in the family of a different region than his own. This experience in living together has proved very encouraging and rewarding.

Recently a camp-cum-seminar of children from 14 different states was organised for eleven days. For seven days the students stayed together. They held group discussions, exchanged exhibition about their state, learnt with mutual help folk songs and dances, learnt a few sentences of different languages, prepared different food dishes of their state, costumes etc.

The evening campfires were most interesting, rich and varied. The students all enjoyed it very much. But more than the students it was a great rewarding experience for the organisers, for we were able to know the healthy attitudes of the youth.

After seven days of stay together the students were given family living experience for four days. They stayed with family other than their own region.

This experience has made us think whether it could not be organised on an International level? Students from a foreign country staying with a student in an Indian family. Such living together will enrich both the guest student and the host student along with the members of the family and the school.

II

In the academic field the Indian Section of the W.E.F. works on the following lines for promotion of progressive and better education:

(1) Organises lectures on modern educational problems for Teachers and Headmasters.

(2) Has promoted a scheme to help the School Teachers and the University Teachers to exchange information and work together for better education.

Experts in Science, Literature, History and Geography come once a month and talk to the teachers regarding the latest development in the subject. This has been found necessary because the explosion of knowledge has been so rapid that school teachers do require the university teachers' help to keep up to date. This co-operation enriches the teachers and improves the standard of education which ultimately benefits the university education. This scheme is organised with the help of Headmasters' Association and Schools.

Further, Indian Section of the W.E.F. has been responsible in promoting the Introduction of NEW Mathematics in schools of Bombay. With the help of experts, teachers were trained in content and methods of teaching 'New Maths'. A group of maths teachers were entrusted to evolve curriculum in new maths. After the curriculum was worked out a workshop was organised to help the teachers of various schools to implement the topics in the classroom situation. This syllabus has been accepted by 18 schools now introducing new maths in Bombay. Moreover, at elementary or primary level with the help of some progressive schools attached to the Indian Section of the W.E.F. 'New Maths' materials are being produced to help other teachers introduce new maths at primary stage. Exhibitions of these materials are held for the benefit of other schools. Municipal Schools of Bombay are actively associated in this programme.

III

Cultural and creative activities should form part of the progressive education movement. Indian Section of the W.E.F. has tried to promote such activities in the following way.

With the active co-operation of the Indian Section 'Childrens' Little Theatre' movement has been organised. The objective of this movement is to help children participate in drama spontaneously and creatively. The aim is to discourage too much professionalism in drama, dress, make-up, stage-craft etc. The children are helped to write their own script,

make own dresses, improvise stage-craft and use their imaginations and creative faculties to the fullest. The expert does supervise and help but his role is secondary. This movement C.L.T. has some 40 schools attached to it. It runs two centres in Bombay to help gifted children from different schools to develop talents. It organises annual festivals of Dramas, Dance and Music for school children at very low prices (only to meet expenses). In this festival schools participate by giving cultural items.

The organisation C.L.T. organises seminars for teachers to discuss the value of drama in education. It helps the schools by providing lists of books on children's drama to buy for their library. It has organised a band of children's writers to produce written work for children on drama. This movement will, it is hoped, make drama in school and for school children a real creative and enjoyable activity.

In Art and Craft the Indian section helps to encourage the schools that are promoting creative arts and crafts. The objective is to allow the child to work in the atmosphere of freedom to create and enjoy. A band of artist teachers and craft teachers are helping to promote these ideals in teaching of Art and Craft. The Indian Section helps these workers and schools to come together and exhibit the creative work of the children for the public to see and appreciate. It has also organised seminars for parents to know how children enjoy creating new forms. Such seminars have helped parents to appreciate their children's work.

The Indian Section is able to carry out these activities because it is able to get good co-operation from other Organisations interested in youth and education.

Dr K. C. Vyas.

University of Bristol — Department of Social Work and Administration

CERTIFICATE IN RESIDENTIAL WORK WITH CHILDREN

Applications are invited from experienced teachers and residential care staff for this one-year, full-time course of further professional training commencing in September 1971.

The Course is particularly intended for Heads of Units and other senior Staff, and for those preparing to work in senior posts including posts in staff development and supervision. Applications are also invited from staff wishing to develop a specifically therapeutic role in the residential setting. Successful completion of the course leads to the award of the University Certificate and of the Central Training Council Senior Certificate in Residential Child Care.

Applicants should normally be 25-45 years of age and have had three or more years experience of work with children or young people, some of it in a residential setting. A basic qualification in education or child care is normally required. C.T.C. grants are generally available where needed.

Further details from: The Course Secretary, Certificate in Residential Work with Children, University of Bristol Department of Social Work and Administration, 6 Berkeley Square, Bristol BS8 1HQ.

WCOTP
Introduction to the 1971 Theme
Rural Education

John M. Thompson, Secretary General

An Introduction to a theme study should be like the first arrow aimed at the target. It may miss altogether but how it falls short or goes wide will help the next archer. His endeavour in turn will assist his colleagues and in the end, someone will hit the bull's eye.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow wrote:

> 'I shot an arrow in the air,
> It fell to earth, I knew not where
>
> I breathed a song into the air
> It fell to earth, I knew not where.
>
> Long, long afterward, in an oak
> I found the arrow, still unbroke
> And the song, from beginning to end,
> I found again in the heart of a friend.'

Such success, I do not seek. I hope only not to follow D. B. W. Lewis' parody:

> 'I shot an arrow into the air
> I don't know how it fell, or where
> But, strangely enough, at my journey's end,
> I found it again, in the neck of a friend.'

A risky business — but here goes . . .

Reading and discussing our theme for 1971 throughout the past year, I am left with the impression that 'Rural Education' in the sense of education designed for people in rural areas is morally wrong, practically useless and educationally unsound. It is morally wrong in that it is segregationist, implying a kind of urban-rural 'apartheid'. It is practically useless in that more education leads to more movement away from the rural areas. Educationally it is unsound in that in the future many of the people who will provide the skilled manpower on the land will come from the cities.

What we need is rural education for all and urban education for all — in fact, a balanced education for all. The rural side is weak and herein lies the justification for our theme for 1971. 'Ruralization', as it is called in some places, is needed in the short term to meet immediate needs in many developing countries. 'Pollution' has to be studied in many developed countries to solve immediate problems. In the long run an overall review of educational objectives is implied.

Of course, we keep asking ourselves to do a lot of things and to accept a lot of 'priorities'. In 1968, we agreed to press human rights in every subject. In 1969, we agreed that development should permeate much of our teaching. In previous years, we have urged that international understanding be at the root of everything. There is, however, a common thread — the demand that education should be based on Man and his relations to his fellow Man. In 1962, we concentrated on Man and Technology. What we are proposing to do in 1971, is to relate Man and his fellow Man to their natural surroundings. Or put another way — 'Teachers and the protection of life', the concept of the 'institut de la Vie' which is dear to our French friends.

We need to look at man and his needs, to analyze how he can satisfy them, both physically and mentally. We come to the theme of 'Rural Education' essentially because the mental needs of the people in the rural areas are not being satisfied and because the material needs of the people in the urban areas will cease to be catered for if we continue to despoil our earth. We have split the world into urban and rural. We must re-integrate the two elements to protect the life of each.

Of course, even if we agree on how the schools might be changed to satisfy all these diverse needs, we will be up against many pressures. Ironically, the more democratic our political systems, the more difficult is our task. It has long been accepted that people in rural areas have many conservative traditions and concepts. Equally, people in cities will say, 'Why learn about the country when your future lies in industrial management, law,

and so on?' Local control of education means community involvement but it limits the school as a force for change.

Education can do its job properly only if the political and social climate so permits. Politically there is a trend to national standards to create equality of opportunities. Socially there are trends synthesizing the two worlds but they are very limited to date. Satellite towns are born but the umbilical cord is still very strong. Publicity for one such town near where I live is based on showing how quick it is to get to the big city! There may be more future in the type of development which is taking place in the new provinces of the Netherlands where rural towns are being developed instead of a multiplicity of villages. We need to concentrate on how to get the city to come to terms with the country. We need 'Rural Education', but as much for the people in the cities as for those in the country.

The big city may diminish in importance in the years ahead. Television is providing many of the same cultural attractions for people wherever they live. Improved transportation facilities are decreasing the immediate importance of where we live. However, I think that essentially city living still gives most people either a feeling of being where the action is or conversely of finding the privacy of the crowd. We just like to be together even if we complain about it! People in the cities want others to remain in the country and provide their natural resources. We are avoiding coming to grips with the problem.

On the other hand, (I like to believe as a result of the success of our educational systems) the younger people of today do want to come to grips with the problems. We who temporarily hold the power should respond even if it means considerable upheaval. In some countries we are faced with the inertia of prosperity. In others with the inertia which follows power recently achieved. In others the inertia of autocracy, content to keep things as they are. If we cannot overcome these, our improvement of education is practically suicidal.

We need to promote a massive effort to bring to children in isolated areas the educational opportunity enjoyed by their fellow students in cities. But this should not be viewed as a means of keeping them there. It is a part of an overall plan to give every individual his birthright and to make the fullest possible use of all our available human resources. We must recognize, however, that the success of our endeavours in this direction will lead us to the threshold of other problems — lack of employment opportunities, for example, is already a major issue. If teachers are to fulfil themselves in terms of what they have done with young people, they will have to speak out as groups in the community on the social issues which stem from their educational work. If we concentrate next year on rural education in a narrow sense, we will miss the whole picture.

Of course, as in all educational developments, we do not start with a clean slate. Peoples have different cultural traditions, religious beliefs, prejudices, values, and so on. These have to be taken into account. People should know how these concepts relate to their physical environment even if they then reject change in favour of what they consider higher spiritual values. Man does not live by bread alone. Nirvana is a state of non-desire. Life on earth is but a preparation for life hereafter. To others — que sera, sera. If the fates so ordain, man must accept. Education can show the consequences; it cannot determine the choice.

Promoting change democratically is itself a major educational endeavour. We will not succeed in a short time. We have successfully taught young people of the evils of war but we have not stopped military force from being the ultimate determining factor in many situations — nor have we stopped war itself. We have successfully taught the evils of social injustice but we have not replaced the profit motive in relations between men and nations. None of these failures negates the principle of the cause or the way in which we have made it prosper.

In the preparation of our theme outline, we have almost an abundance of riches — with

the attendant risk that we may not see the wood for the trees.

In the period 1958 to 1962 WCOTP had a Committee or Rural Education of which our good friend Mervyn Ball was the Secretary for a number of years. In June this year the Second World Food Congress met in The Hague. At the end of July the World Congress on Agricultural Education convened in Copenhagen. Out of the deliberations of these meetings will emerge additional questions to which we should address ourselves in our 1971 Theme Study. Our own International Seminar on 'Equal Opportunity through Education' to be held presently in Hamilton, New Zealand, will give special attention to urban-rural imbalance. Out of its deliberations will come additional thoughts.

I wish to put forward some of the concerns to which I feel we may address ourselves in the hope that those of you who feel so inspired will pass on your own particular thoughts as to how we can make our 1971 study relevant to the problems of our day:

— the reason why some men suffer from hunger and thirst while others waste;

— the vital inter-relation of urban and rural life in the world of today or that of industrialised and agricultural nations in the world of tomorrow;

— the impact of space on the psychology of the child in the urban as compared to the rural situation and the ways in which each can experience the joys and hazards of the other;

— the significance of rural development for all of us if man is to break away from the collision course with his environment on which he seems to be embarked;

— the conception and scope of environmental studies — local, regional, national and international;

— the way in which students who are 'excited' about these problems can contribute to their solution in their post-school career — not just through voluntary endeavour.

Since 1967 we have moved from the religious world of the Canadian totem pole through the cultural sphere of the Irish harp to the animal kingdom of the Ivorian elephant and the Australian kangaroo. We take up the challenge of Rural Education most appropriately in the year of the Jamaican palm tree.

BOOK REVIEWS

Searching for Meaning

A Book for Agnostics and Believers
Margaret Isherwood (Allen and Unwin 1970; £2 10p)

This admirably genuine book should be most acceptable for use in Sixth forms and Colleges of Education and Further Education, although believers rather than agnostics seem to get the better deal. This is due to the fact that much of the text is concerned with persuading the former to be less conventional in their approach to religion, while the latter may be deterred by the appearance of too much Christian phraseology. That would be a pity, because the author speaks pretty straight to the condition of contemporary man out of her own rich experience of the inner life.

Like Musil in 'The Man without Qualities' Margaret Isherwood seizes on the twin-headed problem or mystery. namely identity (the wholeness of the person) and reality (the purpose of existence). On page 123 she makes the welcome assertion: 'We should teach the young to be primarily concerned with truth, not with 'my' truth. It is both dishonest and dangerous to teach Christianity or any other religion as if it unquestionably embodied the whole of truth. — Like any other form of imperialism, theological imperialism is a menace to permanent world peace.' Again on p. 126: 'the way of spiritual BECOMING is fundamentally the same for the Catholic, Methodist, Quaker, Vedantist, Baptist, Buddhist, Moslem, Taoist, Bahaist or Hindu.'

If this insight could really penetrate the schools there would be less boring R.I. lessons and fewer potential criminals! Yet for this to happen, 'More of us will have to get to be a new kind of man — Universal man' (U Thant): Margaret Isherwood has made a significant contribution towards the achievement of that goal.

James L. Henderson.

(A second review of this book will appear in our January issue, by Peter Cousins).

Reaching Out; Exploration and Language; Discovering the Physical World; Senses and Sensitivity

Alice Yardley
Young Children Learning Series. Evans. 15s. each.

Alice Yardley has accomplished an unusual feat — four books out at the same time. 'Reaching Out' is said to be the foundation on which the others are based, but each book is complete in itself. Having read the foundation, I was eager to get on to the next — and the next and the next. She tells, with an enthusiasm which catches, of 'one of the great success stories of our time'; the story of how infant school teachers have 'adhered to their inspiration and are winning out!'

Each book covers a range of topics which are connected with a particular aspect in the child's life at school. Miss Yardley is obviously a joyful person and a wise one, with a deep understanding of young children and a harvest of experience from which to draw. I enjoyed the liveliness and appropriateness of the anecdotes which illustrate the points made; also Miss Yardley's sense of humour. She must have been a wonderful headmistress. She is now the Principal Lecturer in Education at the Nottingham College of Education. I feel that in writing these books she has been somewhat torn as to whether she was addressing parents or students or teachers in primary school, and so there is some difficulty about levels. The book may make an excellent introduction, at a general level, to students at the beginning of their courses and certainly will be illuminating and of great interest to parents of young children. But one would hope that most infant teachers would be well acquainted with a good deal of what Miss Yardley has to say, and that students inevitably will go more extensively into all the various aspects. I don't think it ever hurts anyone to read family theory when it is as well written as this is; the new writer inevitably brings some new light, and some inspiration, some clarification about a personal confusion. But I kept on wishing to have the author write much more deeply; it is as if she has felt it necessary to cover the whole of child development, educational philosophy and practice, so she cannot stay and dig deep. For example, she has to fit Art into two small pages. It is all accomplished with methodical care — one chapter runs smoothly into the next. one book follows the other, and we feel the satisfaction of the methods now established in infant schools. But all the time there is the feeling that an expert has cut down, modified. When I say that we have been given the tip of the iceberg, and that the author is capable of plumbing the depths of it, the smile is fitting and yet ludicrous — for the word iceberg is hardly applicable to books which are brimming with warmth, with lively children, with personalities.

Yes, a splendid set of books for parents, for sixth form girls, nursery nurses, teaching students on the way in, and teachers who are there and want some refreshment. But I hope Miss Yardley is going to get busy with something more advanced too. We have a glimpse of real wisdom, at moments when she plumbs deeper and says such things as 'Happiness is not in itself a goal, it is only a by-product of satisfactory living.' This is incisive and stays with the reader — and that is what matters.

Betty Willsher.

School Counselling

A Report of a Working Party of the N.A.M.H.
(National Assoc. for Mental Health. Price 7s. 1970)

The N.A.M.H. have issued a report from their working party which was set up in 1967 with terms of reference to review the purposes of counselling and the development of the counselling services in schools. This paper is published for the purpose of stimulating discussion and to set out clearly the mental health viewpoint on counselling. In its final recommendations, the working party supports the deliberate cultivation of the present counselling services in schools in order to further a major educational objective namely, the personal and social development of children.

The areas covered for discussion are familiar to all interested in this field of study and include the context of counselling, the needs of children in school, the resources available in school and society and the proficiency of relating resources to need. There is an interesting section on counsellor recruitment and career prospects where possible schemes for using two counsellors in one school are introduced. Certainly, the writers are looking well into the future!

Although the general findings of the working party are in line with current development, a number of very interesting points are raised. For instance, there is a plea for the counsellor to avoid a narrow interpretation of his role. The counsellor's work covers educational, vocational and personal counselling but most of his energies are, at the present time, spent on the two letter fields. Much exploratory work needs to be done on the educational counselling side, meeting the normal developmental needs of children, 'the fulfilment of which underlies personal growth and contributes to the betterment of social living'. (Para 3.6.) There is a need for teachers and counsellors to structure their work in order to ensure that the skills and values which the school wishes to transmit are, in fact, given.

The working party finds that the place of the teacher is central to the counselling role and it is he who must take primary responsibility for the overall general practice of counselling. The teacher's first task must be to understand the broad general concept of childrens' needs through his training and he should have knowledge of where to turn for professional help. The educational counsellor is another resource in the school. His work is, however, a 'fundamental process' and recognition of his function must be given in the form of proper facilities for working, time-table commitments and a recognised status.

The problem of communication and co-ordination between outside organisations which have links with the school, and the school, are dealt with at length. The school is the focal point of contact between many different organisations and it is suggested that the counsellor could facilitate local representative groups to meet under the aegis of the school or group of schools and so harmonise and improve communications.

'School Counselling' is a stimulating discussion paper, clearly and concisely written and recommended for any group with interests in this field. It will help to clarify the position of the counsellor in the changing educational scene. The N.A.M.H. working party is still convened and individuals and groups who have a contribution to make after reading the report are requested to write to them.

Eileen Eisenklam.

Half Way There

Report on the British Commonwealth School Reform

Caroline Benn and Brian Simon
McGraw-Hill Publishing Co. Ltd. pp 421

This thoroughgoing description of the present state of comprehensive reorganisation in Britain is based on replies to two questionnaires: the first sent to all comprehensive schools, over 700 replying, and the second, at greater depth, to a sample of 44. The questionnaires are printed in the Appendix.

In addition, Caroline Benn, as information officer and editor for the Comprehensive Schools Committee, had access to much up-to-date material through her own researches and those of others: Brian Simon, as editor of Forum and through continuous investigations in this field, had similar advantages. The picture presented is over two years more recent than that of T. G. Monks in his interim report, 'Comprehensive Education in England and Wales', based on the NFER research project. The present survey is likely to hold the field until the NFER definitive report in 1974.

In Part I on the Background to the Reform, both historical and comparative, Brian Simon implicitly answers the current question as to whether the change in Government and the withdrawal of Circular 10/65 mean a reversal of national policy. Developments in Britain reflect a universal trend towards a more comprehensive organisation of secondary education in response to the scientific and technological revolution. We may put the brakes on, but we cannot reverse.

Moreover, reflected in the influential series of official Reports, there is a broad national consensus of acknowledgment that economic and social trends call for the change towards an open, flexible, and universal system of secondary education.

At the same time there is the drag of traditional attitudes and sentiments, and outdated adherence to an educational economy of scarcity in which the middle class have a vested interest. Opposition reaches hysteria in instances quoted from the local press.

As is implied in the title, and repeatedly stressed in the text, comprehensive re-organisation cannot be done by halves: nor can it be done by Circular. Until Government policy is decisive, and governmental action incisive, the majority will have to tolerate permanent pockets of selection.

In Part 2 Caroline Benn looks critically at the process and upshot of transition to comprehensive: over twenty variations in pattern subsumed under three basic types, all-through, tiered, and with separated sixth forms. Here, as elsewhere, statistical information is conveyed in a series of tables, over 70 in total, that present the picture, 'warts and all', of schools in a gamut of comprehensiveness, from the extremely inadequate to the fully efficient. The decline in the predominance of the all-through, and the rise in the tiered varieties is noted and accounted for.

Part 3 by Brian Simon deals with Internal Organisation, Teaching and Learning. Part 4, mainly, and Part 5 entirely, by Caroline Benn, deals with the Comprehensive School as a Community, and Comprehensive Schools in the Community respectively.

The book concludes with 29 clear recommendations based on the arguments in the text. The first 16 have

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to do with reforms at the national level; the rest with local administration and internal school organisation. They vary in moment: but my experience leads me to support what I think will be regarded as the more weighty resolutions, to take many of the others for granted, and to sympathise with the purpose of the rest.

Of course there is much debateable matter.

The opening sentence of the Preface, reads: 'Comprehensive schools are no longer an experiment'. In one sense this is true: they are here to stay. But in practice it is the comprehensive school that has proved itself most sensitive to changing ideas on the aims, methods, and content of education. Developments noted and advocated in 'Half Way There' are widening the gap between the comprehensives and the grammar schools that ought to be integrated with them. Their aloofness from comprehensive developments during the last twenty years has made it progressively more difficult for the grammar schools, from their own standpoint, to join the mainstream. When and where it was possible for a school to bring together the total secondary resources for an area and deploy them flexibly so that they remained accessible to all as they developed the powers, aptitudes, and motivation to use them, the consequent elimination of 'type misfits' proved demonstratably advantageous to all components of the comprehensive, including the academic.

This conception has now in the main been abandoned, one obvious reason for this being the determined apartheid of the grammar school. Hence, as was likely to happen in any case, the schools have aimed at comprehensiveness in another sense. These developments towards a new conception of 'comprehensive education' are experimental in a way that the earlier comprehensive re-organisation of the existing system was not.

They lead to a number of dilemmas that are not in my judgment made sufficiently explicit in the text. It was axiomatic twenty years ago that equality of opportunity did not mean identity of provision, and that we should recognise differences by variety of course or bias.

But we read: 'some schools are attempting to realise the full advantage of comprehensive organisation in terms of equal opportunity and undifferentiated educational experience for all their pupils.'

The conception of 'comprehensive education' leads to great stress being placed on the common course and 'mixed ability grouping'. This is a salutary reaction to carrying over into the comprehensive the practice of arranging classes in a hierarchy of prestige, generally determined by 'ability streaming', which tends to become rigid and 'self-fulfilling' from the point at which it is introduced.

But the aspiration towards the extension of a full common course to 16, with the presumption in favour of mixed ability groups, (Recommendations 25-27), may bring with it the danger of new rigidities.

On the other hand there is much to be said for a broad 'common core' of studies up to 16, with new syntheses and interdisciplinary projects taking an increasing part and offering a field in which mixed ability grouping is appropriate and might be supported by a more cogent rationale, based on educational, psychological, sociological, and anthropological grounds.

Common education aims and curricular experience could be embodied in this area, in which, too, the learning group could be the 'pastoral' group. But as and when particular studies are introduced, including those arising from interests and motivations generated in the common core, it appears to me a sensible and flexible use of the school economy to arrange other groupings, which would take account of both choice and level of attainment.

Two other debateable points among the many:

'The realisation that comprehensive schools would have to adopt new forms of social organisation came more slowly than they would have to adopt new academic organisation.' If this is the way things have gone, it is not the way things started. Reference to the ENEF booklet of 1950, and experience in the formative period give a different picture.

The view that the early schools 'were indifferent to grammar school competition' reads strangely to me. The heads of the budding London comprehensives were in no doubt, and left the Education Authority in no doubt, of the overwhelming difficulties of trying to establish comprehensive schools in a partially comprehensive system.

If the authors are right in either of these judgments, comprehensive Heads would appear to have shown remarkable indifference to the problem of secondary reorganisation in a national perspective, to the place of the comprehensive in the local system, and to the nature of the comprehensive school itself.

This book describes an important milestone in the history of the comprehensive school in Great Britain. The more the reader is familiar with comprehensive schools, the more will he appreciate the work of the authors in providing us with this thesaurus of information, comment, and recommendation.

Raymond King.

'People like that . . .'

A miscellany of students' writing
Edited by Bernard Miller
and published by the Central London Adult Education Institute, 6 Bolt Court, Fleet Street, London E.C.4.
price 10s.

'People like that' sometimes want to write is a book of the work of students in a creative writing class with Bernard Miller as tutor. He compiled the anthology and is, I think, to be congratulated on his presentation of the book as is the art editor Colin O'Brien, who is also contributor of merit.

The work in this book is the result of two years work as a group. The editor concludes by stating 'I have chosen work which I believe to be the most spontaneous and sincere expression of each student's awareness.'

The work of these students was written without any incentive towards publication. It was expression. This, I felt, was why so much was written freely and well, and why it did not show the desperateness that some work written under pressure of knowing that it just had 'to come up to expectations' shows. This work was relaxed and sincere.

The impact of the title poem 'People like that' written by Janet Gardiner made me want to read more of her work and of the other contributors. Much of the work was more than a little sad which is not a bad thing and it makes us feel deeply about the more sombre aspects of life and death. Some of the work was not to my taste but I felt that they were sincere and they would not bother or be deterred by one man's opinion.

For me three writers stand out . . . Colin O'Brien, Janet Gardiner and Anita Simpson. I wish I had written some of their work myself! You cannot ignore poems like

Anita Simpson's 'Shopping' or 'Consider her Deformity' or Colin O'Brien's 'The River Between' and 'Facts, Thoughts and a Reason' an incident seen through the eyes of four different people. It is sombre but unusual.

Some of the other work impressed me. For example, K. Nandanwar has only one piece but I felt I knew her after reading it, knew her as a person. She has achieved something in communication and this I call talent. There was also Joan Longoni's 'Marianne'. Credit must also go to Bernard Miller for encouraging his students and helping them develop their work. Some work left me cold and if I did not confess this, I should be nothing but a tongue in the cheek liar. Everyone should get a copy of this book and find out what good work is being done in Central London Institute. This is their first book, I hope it won't be their last. The book shows what can be done when people write as a form of self-expression and it is a revelation of the quality of 'People like that . . .'

Victor G. James.

The Shared Experience

writing and teaching: towards a disciplined freedom in the work of students and children.
Eileen Mackinlay
Methuen Education Ltd. 30s.

Anyone who has asked himself how he can encourage others to enjoy writing and to do it well will find this short book compulsive reading. It is perhaps of particular interest to lecturers in English in colleges of education, but should have a far wider readership than that suggests. Eileen Mackinlay expresses concisely and readably her ideas about what makes people write, and charts, without self-congratulation, the moves she has encouraged 'towards a disciplined freedom in the work of students and children'. Her ideas spring from the comments she makes on the excerpts from students' and children's work that form a very important part of this nicely balanced book. The excerpts are drawn from a wide field: from the original verse and prose, the course work essays and the teaching diaries of students at colleges of education, and from the writing of the children they have taught. The honesty, freshness and control of much of this writing compel the reader's whole attention.

It is most refreshing to encounter a book about people learning to write that does not use the soothing but unhelpful term 'creative writing' but instead really tries to define one person's understanding of the way imagination works upon experience. The author acknowledges the debt to Coleridge's ideas about the imagination and demonstrates impressively that they work. In speaking of students' writing she shows how 'In each mind whole experiences have had to be dissolved and fragmented into memories. Imagination has shaped the fragments into a fresh whole.' Her examples show again and again the importance of the writer's using the memories and experiences that he has stored within himself, and of the teacher's providing him with material that will stimulate the imagination to put these things to use effectively. It is also refreshing to find someone saying of writing that is 'a form not of therapy but of control.' Examples of students' work shows development towards control, simplicity, precision, and a rejection of superfluous adjectives, the passive voice, the safe generalization. Many examples bear out the author's view that concentration on the object described is more telling than concentration on feelings about the object. Much of the writing is free from the self-indulgence many of us have come to expect in students' work. The excerpts also show how students' analysis of their own work leads them to a fuller appreciation of the work of established writers.

The author questions the distinction people sometimes make between factual and imaginative writing. She shows how a scientist, observing the precise details of a phenomenon, is imaginatively engaged when he writes a factual account of the details so that the quality of his writing reflects his excitement at what he has seen. She sees no clear dividing line between the excitement of the scientist and that of the poet, between factual and imaginative writing: 'each', she says, 'has its own kind of exactness.' She would like children to be able to enjoy what they see in both the artist's and scientist's way. She gives some exerpts which show how very young children move from writing completely factually to being able to make comparisons with other things in their own experience and so to make an image which comes spontaneously.

As a lecturer in a college of education, the author is in a position to show us not only the writing her students do as part of their English course, but also comments from their teaching practice diaries, and examples of writing from the children they are teaching. The connection between these is fascinating. One student wonders whether her own thought is influencing the children too much, and the author deals with this question in an honest and interesting way. The book begins with a quotation from Coleridge on the ability 'to contemplate the Ancient of days and all his works with feelings as fresh as if all had then sprung forth at the first creative fiat'. Young children have this ability, Miss Mackinlay says, and teachers can help them only if they have kept their own freshness of sensation. It seems likely that the author's students will keep theirs: their essays on literature show the same completeness of response and 'disciplined freedom' as their poems and stories do.

M. E. Dixon

Elementary Teacher's Guide to Working With Parents

Heffernan, Helen and Todd, Vivian Edmiston,
West Nyack, N.Y.: Parker Publishing Co. 1970.
pp. 210. 7.95 dollars.

In these days when parent involvement in the school is being urged on all sides, administrators and teachers will gladly welcome, **Elementary Teacher's Guide to Working With Parents** by Helen Heffernan and Vivian Edmiston Todd. The authors demonstrate their understanding of the diversity and complexity of the issues which confront elementary-school teachers and principals as they work with parents. From the deep well of their joint experiences they offer a host of unique and practical procedures to the young and inexperienced professional and they establish operational guidelines for the school staff as policies are being set and programs are developed.

Here are tested techniques for the principal and his staff as they together seek to bring parents into the school and to secure their continuing concern in the school's purposes and plans. The professionals are reminded of a wide variety of home patterns to be considered when reaching out to involve parents in the life of the school: the child whose mother works; the mother who as head of the family has an income below the poverty level; the parents who both work outside the home but on different schedules; the child who migrates with his parents as the place of work changes; the school entrant who leaves several younger siblings at home with the mother while the father works. The why and when of parent group meetings will depend on the what and how of family schedules — and the authors give many workable suggestions.

That fearsome activity to the new teacher, the parent conference, becomes a gladsome experience when 'five best ways' are examined and followed. Indeed fear would never have developed had an administrator or college instructor used the 'three complete samples' of conferences as a training device. Beginning with ideas for developing a basis for the conference, the stage is set for attracting reluctant parents to the school and for ensuring their experience will be worthwhile and productive. The handling of a wide variety of situations is described precisely, one or another of the illustrations is certain to channel thought and give direction to the problem at hand. Especially timely is the section which presents the how and what of conferring with the 'socioeconomically disadvantaged.'

That age-old issue of evaluating, recording, and reporting pupil progress loses much of its ominousness as the authors demonstrate workable procedures. Once the parent, working on a one-to-one basis with the teacher, understands the evaluative process, a favorable climate is established. The teacher can then 'tune-in to the parents' location,' help him to see the need for reporting pupil progress, and guide him to make appropriate use of the school's oral and written evaluative system. The wide sampling of appraisals would be particularly helpful to the inexperienced teacher seeking guidance for a specific situation.

School administrators who themselves are innovative and who are encouraging teachers to be creative will find many a suggestion for involving parents and community-leaders as they propose curriculum and procedural change. Recognizing that early participation in proposed change is requisite to ready acceptance, the authors give exceedingly clear, step-by-step procedures: assess what is; raise questions; examine what others are doing in this area; how might we move; how shall we move. They close the section with seven carefully developed prints for the administrator and his staff.

Yes, happiness is finding these excellent guidelines from experienced professionals, as we work with parents. Greater happiness is in using these timely suggestions from two experts as we involve parents in the day-by-day process of educating their children in our schools.

Reviewed by S. Elizabeth Campbell, Rhode Island College, Providence, R.I., U.S.A.

BOOKS RECEIVED

English Progressive Schools
R. Skidelsky, Penguin 7s.

Hammarskjold
James L. Henderson, Methuen 15s.

Live & Learn
B. Kaye, N.F.W.I. 10s.

Topic Books:—
Neighbours 1–2
D. Pritchett, Lutterworth 5s each.
The Senses 1–2
D. J. Taylor, Lutterworth, 5s each.

Exploration in Worship
S. M. Hobden, Lutterworth 15s.

Educational Studies in Mathematics
Vol. 1 No. 1/2, D. Reifel Pub. Co. F.22.50.

The Modern World — Britain
J. H. Huizinga, Oxford Univ. Press 9s.

Who's Who?

MAURICE PUNCH

Educated Grammar School and studies at University of Exeter, London, Cambridge and Essex.

Experience — taught in comprehensive school in London and several secondary modern.

Worked with Royston Lambert at King's College Research Unit into Boarding Education, Cambridge.

With finance from Elmgrant Trust of Dartington have conducted research project into progressive education with a follow-up study of former pupils of Dartington Hall School which is now completed and written up. Also written a History of Dartington School which is to be published.

Present position — Lecturer in Sociology at University of Essex.

J. MARJORIE SCAMMELL

Book Reviewer, formerly senior lecturer in Education Gipsy Hill College, Kingston upon Thames. Now retired.

DR MARGARET B. SUTHERLAND

Senior Lecturer in Education, Queen's University of Belfast.

I was a teacher of French and German in Glasgow schools before coming to Queen's University, Belfast, to lecture in Education. Comparative Education is one of my main interests. I am a member of various bodies concerned with educational and psychological questions — e.g. I am Vice-Chairman of the Advisory Council for Education, N. Ireland: a member of the N. Ireland Association for Mental Health: Vice-President of the N. Ireland Society for Autistic Children. (I was also a member of the N. Ireland New Education Fellowship, and its Treasurer for some years.) I have written various articles on educational and psychological topics.

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EDITORIAL

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In this issue it has been a pleasure to print a review of an anthology of student writing in a class of a London Institute of Further Education. Had the publication been by professional writers it would have excited comment but as the work of amateurs it is outstanding both in writing, production and in its title, 'People Like us . . .' some times want to write. We had to thank Alice Bellfield, Deputy Principal, for sending us the book and to congratulate the principal for encouraging an expensive but enlightened project. Recently we had to thank James Hemming for sending a review of another amateur publication that had a high standard of writing, typography and a use of imaginative photography and this was the product of the sixth form of Kingston-upon-Thames Grammar School though they looked outwards and invited well known people to write for them too.

These high standard publications have a lot to say over and beyond what they aim to say. This outbreak of creative writing that is upon us indicates the fact that individual self-expression is a human need that cannot be contained despite mechanisation, totalitarianism, authoritarianism or passive entertainment. The upsurge is world wide from the work in face of personal peril of poets like Andrei Vosnesensky and Alexander Solzhenitsyn in Russia, to the pop records of underground, to the satire on English TV, to the statements of student protest all over the world. We are faced with a younger generation who seem to share a belief in the quality of life rather than the need to acquire quantities of possessions. The cover design of 'People like that . . .' shows photographically the environment of a group of people meeting in a city, on the roof of an old London school, surrounded by some buildings that were admired in the days of Dickens and still photograph well as an environment for creative achievement and self-development, in fact ripe for life-long education. Who still says patronisingly of representational art, 'the camera could have done that as well'? The camera used to further imaginative vision is an art in its own right.

An Italian art dealer was recently remarking on the fact that London has become the art centre of the world partly because 'everybody paints here.' He went on to suggest that everyone of these amateur painters would be likely to produce one picture worth attention as well as a national 'climate' of sympathy for the arts such as prevailed in the eighteenth century. Browning hinted as much about every man being an unknown poet. And now we begin to see his vision taking shape. We have a living younger generation, that makes statements in manifesto, in modern music, in paint, in creative writing both verse, which it speaks with meaning, and in manifesto for protest when it wishes and in late night satire on TV.

In this issue we print a re-assessment of the work and thought of W. B. Curry by Maurice Punch. How much does he share in the credit for the freedom and the sympathy of this younger generation. His insistence that freedom could produce high intellectual attainment just as well as authoritarian education, that is creative freedom, not licence, may be truer than our modern orthodoxy would believe. We cannot be sure that educational thought for the last twenty or more years has not underestimated the educability of the average man and looked for ways and means of boring him stiff with its soft options, lack of tough expectation and slight condescention to the B and C stream in the process. Left to himself or to a Bernard Miller look what he can do. Or take a trip to Amherst or Guildford School of art or visit any pre-school playgroup.

A young man who was not selected for Grammar School or A stream Secondary Modern has just walked into my office as I type this editorial and said, meaning his parents' generation and the elders, 'Strange . . . in a sense they created us. They spent vast sums on our education though really having got the basics from school we were educated extremely well by the mass-media where we selected our programmes. And now they don't seem to like us for being what they created and not really seeing eye to eye with them. They said they wanted freedom for us. Did they?' It is a thought for 1971.

JOURNALS RECEIVED

International Year Book of Education — Unesco.
La Scuola dell'Adulto Nov. 69/May 70.
L'ecole des Parents Jan./June 70.
Unesco Chronicle Jan./June 70.
Spectrum Vol. 2 Nos. 2, 3.
Childhood Education
Research in Education
Les Carnets de L'enfants
New Horizons (Australian W.E.F.)
Dansk Paedagogisk Tidsskrift Jan./June 1970.
Orientamenti Pedagogici
Phi Delya Kappam Jan./June 1970.
Bulletin of the International Bureau of Education
Educational Research (N.F.E.R.)
Informationen zue politischen Bildung
Annual Report of Australian Ccl. for Educational Research School Counselling Report of N.A.M.H.

Education and Vocational Guidance Today

T. D. Vaughan, London, 1970
Routledge & Kegan Paul £1 10s.

Fifteen Plus School Leavers and the Outside World

Rosamunde Blackler
George Allen & Unwin Ltd. 1970 28s.

Education, Work and Leisure

Harold Entwistle
Routledge & Kegan Paul, London, 1970. £1.

Three books, recently published, contribute further to the expanding field of written knowledge on counselling and vocational guidance today.

Mrs Blacker in 'Fifteen Plus', has written up her experiences as a counsellor and social worker in several London schools. Her pioneer work is better known under the name of the Avondale Project. She vividly describes her work with fifteen year old school leavers, their last year at school and the home backgrounds from which they came. She relates in several true stories what happens to deprived young people in the transitional period between school and work. Mrs Blackler shows how urgently these young people need the help and support of a worker, not necessarily attached to the school and demonstrates how best this can be offered, not in a way that spoon feeds and hampers the way to mature judgment by the young person but one which allows freedom to make the right choices. A chapter is devoted to verbatum discussions which were typical of many which took place in school groups on smoking, sex and growing up problems. She finishes with a plea that future counsellors will not become too academic. Above all she finds that young people want a trustworthy, understanding and sympathetic friend to help them with their problems. This small book is about administrators, teachers, pupils and counsellors trying to come to terms with real situations involving poverty, human relationships, job situations and administrative difficulties in one of London's worst twilight areas.

Mr Vaughan's approach to counselling is more academic in his book 'Education and Vocational Guidance today'. He examines the need for a professional educational service in our primary schools, secondary and further educational establishments because of the growing complexity of the educational system and vocational opportunities now available. He argues that guidance must embrace personal, educational and vocational sides since these are all interelated. The use of psychological tests is advocated because they provide a more objective evaluation of the pupil which if used in conjunction with personal assessment and interview can lead to a fuller knowledge of the young person. The psychological factors used in subjective judgement e.g. perception, memory, displacement and the use and limitation of tests are clearly described. Relationships between home and school. education and the world of work are examined and trends for the future explored including the place of the school social teacher/worker and youth leaders. A brief description is given of the development of guidance in the U.S. which although not entirely relevant to a developing British counselling service does provide a source of useful knowledge to counsellors here. Mr Vaughan develops the concept of a guidance team and describes various forms of guidance at present used in progressive schools. Throughout the book numerous references are made to recent research and current thought. The bibliography is extensive and the book provides a good introduction for those interested in educational counselling.

Another approach to the need for vocational guidance is undertaken by Harold Entwistle in an essay entitled 'Education, Work and Leisure'. He develops his ideas from the premise that present educational theory fails to come to terms with the problem of vocational education. He argues that on mans' work rests his status in the community and his happiness and well being. He finds that human work has cultural implications beyond the industrial context within which men exercise their technical skills. Historical, religious and political thinking on mans' need to work is traced and he finds that through work man does determine the circumstances under which he lives and can participate in the creation of our civilisation. Challenging questions are asked about our attitudes towards an industrial society and automation and optimism is expressed about the future providing automation is used as a tool and man remains in control of it.

Dr. Entwistle distinguishes between technical, general and liberal education and the problems of leisure. He asks whether it is possible that leisure activities can compensate for degrading work and finds that repetitive work dulls the appetite for creative leisure pursuits. 'Educationalists have a tendency to contemplate educational change apart from the dynamics of the outside world' and a plea is made for an awareness of the changes in industrial life by teachers who should contribute to the creation of a new society. A consideration of the possibilities for moral, aesthetic, social and political education concludes the book. I did not find the book particularly easy to follow in places but enjoyed the fresh approach to the many problems we are facing today.

Eileen Eisenklam.

Council for Education in World Citizenship

For its 28th Christmas Conference, and as a contribution to the 25th Anniversary of the Foundation of the United Nations, CEWC has chosen the theme: 'Towards Community'.

Aspects of the theme will be presented by a distinguished array of speakers, including Barbara Ward, Shirley Williams, Gerald Bailey, Sybil Thorndike, George Ivan Smith, and Frank Judd.

This year, as an exciting innovation, a number of schools offer their own original interpretations of the theme to the audience of 2,000 young people in the Westminster Central Hall. Whitgift and Croham Hurst present a 'potted' version of the Oresteian trilogy of Aeschylus (blood feud to city state.) Wandsworth and Mayfield in contrast present the theme of tolerance in pop and folk music, improvised drama, poetry, and film: Bolton Girls' School in discussion, helped by devices in various media, examine the nature of group loyalty.

The four-day programme, Dec. 29th — Jan. 1st, should have an immense appeal to young people — age limits are 15-19 — and many readers of the New Era may be in a position to alert fifth and sixth formers to an opportunity they ought not to miss.

Full information may be had from CEWC, 93 Albert Embankment, S.E.1, and immediate application will secure a place at the Conference.

Raymond King: Vice-Chairman CEWC.

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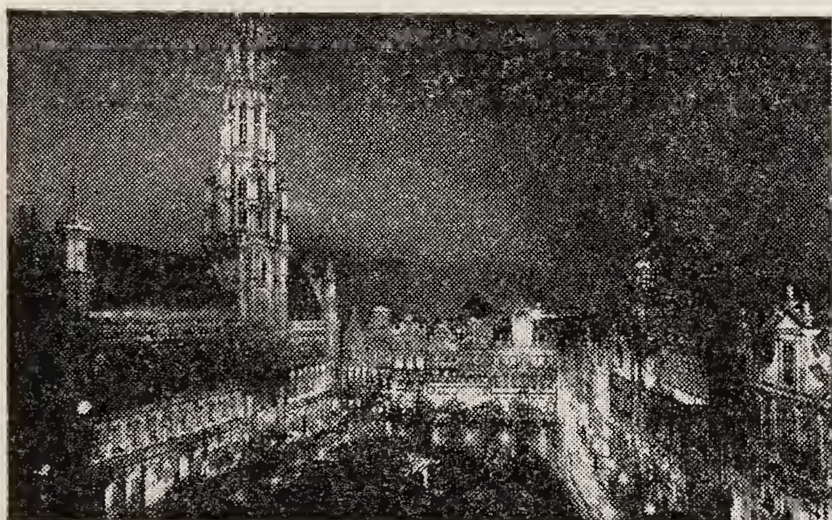

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Details from: M. Henri Biscompte, 105 Boulevard du Souverain 105, 1160 Bruxelles, Belgium, who is organising the Congress on behalf of International Headquarters and the French-speaking Group.

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